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A MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT

NO presidential message appears this year without reference to the financial crisis, though there seems to be an increasing conviction that the crisis is waning and that times are looking up. Certainly we are all urged to be cheerful, to be optimistic, and to be extravagant. I can think of nothing more cheerful, more optimistic, or more extravagant, than to believe that the convention ought to be held this year and to hope that a large majority of the members of The National Association of Teachers of Speech will foregather in Los Angeles at Christmastime. As our faith, so shall it be unto us.

The announcement sent out in the Spring stressed the beauty of Los Angeles and its opportunities; the comfort of the convention hotel, the Biltmore; and the delights of travel on the Los Angeles Limited, the convention train. I want to stress the encouragement, the stimulus, the renewed delight in our profession, to be had from a convention held during a time of depression.

It was my privilege to see a letter from the wife of an old German professor in the Baltic States shortly after the war, when the hardships and privations endured by professional people were almost incredible. As I read of the courage with which these hardships were met and of the sense of spiritual power experienced by these hardpressed men and women as they held fast, through physical deprivation, to their intellectual ideals, the little room in which I happened to be sitting seemed suddenly a great and spacious place in which I sensed the power of the mind over bodily distress and glimpsed the greatness of humanity. Knowing that attendance at our convention this year will mean sacrifice, I nevertheless urge you to come, determined to give and to gain courage through comrade-

ship, to acquire wisdom through discussion, to seek vision through new experiences, and to find compensation in high thinking for the plain living that may be necessitated by your trip to Los Angeles.

I have the great pleasure of announcing that Thomas C. Trueblood, Professor Emeritus of Speech in the University of Michigan will be a guest of honor at our convention. Professor Trueblood has traveled over the English-speaking countries of the world and has consented to make for us "a comparison of the speech of this country with that of England and her several colonies, with reflections on the source from which our speech was derived."

Professor Trueblood is the oldest and most experienced, I believe, of all the teachers of speech now living. He is known wherever speech books are known. Certainly he is one of the most loved and respected of our profession. We are highly honored in his consent to be with us.

In the light of the extraordinary success of the Olympic Games this summer, I am encouraged to believe our convention this winter will be proportionately successful. There were thirty-two states represented at Detroit last year and also The District of Columbia and Canada. You will find the list published on Page 164 of The Quarterly of February, 1932. I hope the thirty-two states will maintain their standard and that the sixteen from whom we did not hear last winter will send representatives.

Our friends west of the Rockies have supported our Association with loyalty and with faith. In that spirit they have asked us to meet with them this year, and in that same spirit I ask you to make the Christmas convention not a sectional one but a national one.

If cheer and optimism are the possession of some of our members, but not the right to be extravagant, there remains the greater privilege of generosity. I hope that those of you who cannot afford to come to Los Angeles, will make a common purse in which you will put the fare you would have paid had the convention been nearer your home and send as many representatives of your college or your city or your state as this common pool will allow.

It is the desire of those who are planning for the convention that our program shall not be overcrowded so that there shall be adequate opportunity for the consideration of papers and for leisurely discussion. The program is still in the building. All who are eager to present topics for consideration, all who are eager to

hear specific topics discussed can show no greater goodwill to the officials of the convention than to write to the president immediately on reading this. It is out of such suggestions that rich programs grow.

May I call your attention to Professor Sheffield's article in this number "Discussion, Lecture-Forum, and Debate, as Analyzed for Educational Leadership." I hope that a copy will be in the hands of every group chairman at the convention and that the groups will be sufficiently familiar with the principles presented by Professor Sheffield to engage in the constructive discussion for which the convention leaders are allowing time.

In closing, is it proper to wish the Association a Merry Christmas, a Happy New Year, and a joyous convention in between?

Faithfully yours,

Henrietta Prentiss.

DISCUSSION, LECTURE-FORUM, AND DEBATE

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WHEN a group of persons have been brought together to better their grasp of a public issue, the leader at once realizes that the success of their hour and a half together depends on the way in which his planning for the fact-presentation, discussion, or what-not has appropriately met their present states of mind. Indeed, a good leader regards discussion, along with lecturing, question-and-answer, and debate, as so many varieties of educative experience each of which has its special fitness for one or another kind of group, or stage of the study, depending on the expectations, attitudes, articulateness and knowledge of the participating members. The leader who is being urged to give a meeting to discussion, say on "Disarmament," will therefore not simply let the next step be dictated by enthusiasm. He will first take a good look at his study group and form some provision of what its next meeting should achieve in view of its readiness or unreadiness for things in the whole program before it.

A fruitful use of discussion therefore appears where the leader really knows his group—knows the *type* of gathering it is, and senses

its present level of information and interest—and forms his discussion plan with due thought of its ultimate users. Leaders often *think* they know their groups when they merely feel at ease with them, having established a pleasant basis of congeniality in the meeting-place and personnel. Real knowledge of a group requires a scrutiny of its attitudes to the subject in hand and also of the subject itself as something to gear in at the interest level where the members are. For example, a careful look at a typical college group, meeting to study "Disarmament," might result in the following characterization:

1. Informational level very uneven. A nucleus of the group are studying modern history, and will understand references to treaties and other antecedent political and economic data. Overlapping this nucleus is a faction of young liberals, readers of the radical weeklies and eager for social programs. Others in the group have little more than dinner-table versions of views featured in the newspapers. They are members of the group because they are personal friends of members.
2. The group will take in methodical presentations on an academic plane of thought, and will read bookish material that is made handily accessible. It will dislike, however, an emphasis on information that makes the meeting seem "just like another class."
3. The nationalistic interests that are at stake in the armament issue are rather remote from the felt concerns of the members. The sentiments and ardors that make foreign leaders take "strong" positions are apt to seem unreasonable, and the group drops rather easily and like-mindedly into moralistic or legalistic ways of viewing situations which should deeply exercise their cultural perceptions.
4. The momentum of the group for continued meetings arises from the fact that the conference at Geneva has had publicity not only in the press but in appeals from various organizations seeking to stir citizens up on behalf of national defence or of peace. This means that the incentives and motivation of the study are fraught with a sense of crisis, which will need to be strengthened by more durable motivations as the meetings continue.

This inspection of the study-group at a particular point in its concern with such a topic as "Disarmament" must also take under view the different *kinds of learning* which will engage the members as they address themselves to that topic. The issue of disarmament

involves at least three kinds. It involves first a *total view* of the possible approaches towards peace—approaches that may be made to different points of control, and contemplate different agencies of control for issues arising between nations. When we view the whole course of a controversy we may see the possibilities of its peaceable adjustment either at its points of origin, where conflict may be prevented from arising, or at the point of its adjudication, or again at points where the adjudication would be nullified unless enforced. We may thus address ourselves to the *occasions* of conflict, and either seek to mitigate or remove certain *causes* of strife (e. g. trade interferences or rivalries) or seek agreements between governments to exclude certain *issues* from the arbitrament of war. Our advances towards peace would thus proceed by steps which would exclude first some issues with some nations, then all issues with some nations and some with all, and finally all issues with all. As an alternative approach we may address ourselves to the *deciding* of conflicts—to agencies for making settlements between governments—and advance along the path of treaties to use League conciliation, to use arbitration, to use the World Court. Finally we have controls in the ways of *enforcing decisions* when made, and we may address ourselves to the possibilities of limiting armaments—partially or totally, gradually or immediately, contingently or unreservedly—or of using boycotts as alternatives to the sanctions of force. Any group studying disarmament is therefore learning a power of imaginative beholding which sees armament as but one of many interdependent and variable elements of control.

Another kind of learning which engages attention here is insight into the mind of the citizen—into the attitudes, sentiments, fixed ideas, and prejudices that figure in his thinking on matters of transaction between governments. Something of social psychology is requisite to any intelligent recognition of what goes on about us in the way of indoctrination, propaganda, and social pressure where popular opinion on large issues is at stake.

Still another kind of item in this composite of learning is an awareness of the diverse meanings that may appear in terms which are indispensable counters in international discussion. When my fellow citizen says that America must be "independent" does he mean 'sovereignly free of any super-state,' 'not bound by military alliances,' or 'not committed to arbitrate or mediate differences?'

When a European pleads for his country's armament as a bare "minimum of defense" does he mean a minimum against an aggressive *coup* by a neighbor state, against a sustained war with that state, or against war with a possible coalition of states? And in giving figures for an "army" does he refer to a *total* army set up to take the field, or does he mean a skeleton army (of professional soldiers) that would take the field increased to many times its peacetime enrollment? Education for competent thinking on world affairs must include a training in word-discriminations by which minds can meet without falling apart in concealed ambiguities.

A little "job analysis" of this sort—one that factors out for workmanlike attention the elements of readiness and unreadiness in the group and the mental demands in the matters under study—is the beginning of good group leading. What it shows will tell the leader how to make a right educational approach. But this again presupposes that he knows the real nature of group processes as these appear in discussion, forum and debate, and the special kinds of mental profit that are afforded by each of these forms of discourse. Let him first inspect "discussion." The term, indeed, applies popularly to more than one sort of group discourse. Study-groups, however, mean by discussion a way of thinking together by methodical steps that show characteristically—

(1) An approach to the subject as the members touch it in experienced situations.
(2) The modifying of divisive points of view.
(3) A cooperatively tested conclusion.

These features call for some explaining in what follows.

A group using this "discussion" method in a study of "Disarmament" would first of all try to see the matter as a political *situation* to be solved. This means seeing all the factors mentioned on pages two and three together with (1) the activities of influential groups that have special interests at stake and (2) the circumstances presented by national dealings on the matter thus far. All this it would try to take in as a *field of control*—something to be mapped out for advances that are worked out within compassable limits. The group would invite this "situation approach" by the way it phrased its topic. It would not announce its theme as "Disarmament." That would be a *subject* inviting a disquisition rather than a discussion. It would phrase its discussion-theme as a *question*, for example:

"What is the next step for this country toward disarmament?" or "What should citizen-groups such as ours do toward the reduction of armaments?" or "How do we think the world should be policed?"

Put this way the topic invites a certain problem attitude in the members, and it suggests that the problem must be seen not solely in terms of *technical* facts, which are the affair of experts, but also in terms of *social* facts, which are the affair of lay folk like themselves. Chief among social facts are the divisive points of view which people take towards large complicated matters like armament, so that in these matters one cannot "study the subject" without studying one's own reactions to it. The group indeed can treat itself as a little social test-tube, displaying in small compass the conflicting differences of view which on the scale of public opinion really *are* the problem of disarmament.

Discussion starts therefore with certain questions, addressed by the leader to members, which will draw out views of the situation in its critical essentials. What the members see in the situation is determined not simply by what is *there* to be seen, but also by their own socially engendered attitudes and preferences. These of course differ with the diversities of interests and sentiments that align people into class-groups: cultural, industrial, and political. Hence what the members *say* about the situation will in effect begin to define what it *is*. They will together sketch by mutually supplementing strokes a map of its determining features. It is a peculiar sort of experience map, since *time* is one of the dimensions of experience and the social experience of nations with armament includes not only what *has* happened as past and present facts of the case, but people's changeable feelings and willingness in view of what *may* happen. Looked at as displaying the "armament problem" it shows both fixed and variable factors—the former being the data as to national expenditures on armament, trade rivalries, declared government policies, and the latter being the variable attitudes towards the social *values* (and "unvalues") that are at stake. Thus the problem can almost be stated as that of devising a course of progressive agreements between people who at the present speaking respond incompatibly to a picture which each sees diversely warped by over-stresses on some values, with others confused or not registering. It is the first step of discussion to get these unadjusted values, however faultily seen and expressed,

at least all recognized as what give the picture its patterning points and forces. Thereby the members make the educational effort that is perhaps most distinctive of discussion: namely the effort to span, within one field of attention, a web-work of interdependent desires. In the armament field they will mirror in their minds a cluster of concerns much like the following—

National independence in deciding nationalistic "rights."
International sanctions consistent with patriotic self-respect.
Trade opportunities for one's own nationals.
Protection of persons and property of one's nationals when abroad.
Just adjudication of disputes between nations.
Avoidance of power politics in economic expansion.
Avoidance of popular suspicion of the designs of neighbor nations.
Elimination of costly armament and destructive war.

This "situation approach" to the subject of disarmament thus gets the study-group to see it as the problem of devising international arrangements and measures by which all the above interests will come into a satisfying equipoise of "socialized" claims.

The second feature of the thought-process in a group discussion is the modifying of the member points of view. At the outset members see things differently because they feel the values differently, because their present attitudes and interests make them diversely sensitive and attentive to the whole situation. As a result they suggest courses of action which express their partialities of vision—doing so with no lack of good intentions, and even unaware of their espousals of some interests at the cost of others. What discussion does here is to *entertain* these suggestions, with the *reasons* for them, and then to *test* them by exploring together their likely consequences for *all* the felt values at stake. This testing of the *possibilities* of action involves two kinds of effort which are simple enough to mention but which require time and skill to do; namely, (1) the applying of factual information, and (2) the reconsidering of partisan desires. It proceeds on the assumption that people will *modify* what they now want either by finding better *means* for satisfying the desire, or by coming to recognize the *essentials* from the trappings of it, or by shifting to a more enlightened desire.

This cooperative quest of ways to *develop* a situation so that

it shall give effect to all the values which people have at heart brings the group to the third feature of discussion; its trend towards a socially validated conclusion. Here it gives effect to a special way of looking at conflict: one that clearly differentiates between conflict and *strife*. Conflict it views as a natural phase of tension among people's interests—a phase inevitable where new interests arise and changed circumstances call for adjustments. Strife is conflict that has been embroiled by coercive handling. "Much that is wasteful in the threshing out of social issues is thus due to wrong attitudes towards conflict, arising from bad habits of thought about its nature. Hard feeling, suspicion, egoistic triumph and chagrin all come from treating as a battle what is essentially a problem. There are always two sides to a battle. There are two sides to an argument only when people are disposed to coerce rather than to collaborate. A really creative argument has as many sides as there are interests at stake. The interests, doubtless, seem to be in collision, but this is because their spokesmen have not thought their way through the possibilities ahead. The interests do indeed confront one another, and show their differences in a state of upset equilibrium. Disputants' purposes do appear as cross-purposes. But it is precisely the task of discussion to make discriminations about our purposes, and to induce long views of the situation—views that forecast a continuing experience within which our interests can interact for mutual development."[1] So conceived, discussion is not a fight to be *won*. It is a process of cooperative testing of proposals for their maximum promise to all parties concerned.

In speaking of the "conclusion" here we must recognize that discussion may have either of two kinds of objective: it may seek a decision looking towards action, or it may seek simply the education of its participants. In a *conference* on disarmament government representatives hope to make their discussion reach real *accord* on mutually satisfactory things to do. In an *educational* discussion on the issue the group of course will not go that far. It will not go home with the armament situation solved. But it will have learned something of the *solvability* of such a problem where the modifying of people's claims and desires is managed as a process not of whittling them down to some compromise but of seeking for them new

[1]From *A Cooperative Technique for Conflict*, p. 9f—The Inquiry, New York.

conditions and expressions on maturer levels of satisfaction. The process, as we have noted, seems mainly one of mutual help in *seeing* better. The special sensitivities and outlook of each member stir new awarenesses in the others until all experience an enrichment of social insight in the matter.

Where discussion deals with a theme by the interchange of contributions from members who speak on the same footing, a forum deals with it by a platform address to which the hearers offer questions and comment for the speaker's reply. The speaker, unlike a discussion-leader, is really in the rôle of a teacher—a visiting "star" teacher— and the aim of the member participation is mainly to get the maximum value from his special gift at clarification or enlargement of thought. The seating arrangement itself expresses this relationship. Members face the lecturer and address their remarks to him rather than to each other. They are too large a body for all to take part, so that most of them simply listen or take notes.

Like the discussion-group, however, the forum has a chairman, who exercises a certain guidance to the procedures. He introduces the speaker, and usually presides over the subsequent questioning and comment from "the floor." It is his responsibility to watch that the participation takes a course which carries out the purpose of the meeting, and he can use a large discretion in doing so. For example, he may declare a brief intermission after the address, so that people may formulate their responses with help from their neighbors. He may even have their first questions handed in in writing—enabling him to make decisions as to their precedence and pertinence. He helps or checks the members—repeating questions of persons with weak voices and bringing up short those who ramble. He controls the distribution of time on the phases of the subject and ends the talking at a point of felt achievement.

The forum, therefore, is a sort of glorified class in which the learners register their reactions to a lecturer's thought. The *organization* of the thinking is the previous work of the latter, and not, as in discussion, the creative task of the group. And the outcome of the process is not something achieved by the gathering *as a group*. It is something achieved by and for the persons present as *individuals*. It is an advance for each in his grasp and appreciation of a *subject*.

The most important difference between discussion and debate is that one makes group thinking and the other individual thinking

its approach to an issue. Where discussion starts with the group looking at a situation and entertaining tentative proposals out of which to *develop* a solution, debate starts with one party's solution, already thought out in private, and brought to the group for *acceptance*. Instead of a "situation approach" the group thus makes a "proposal approach" which lines up its members to speak on the *yes*-side and the *no*-side of a conviction formed on the outside.

Naturally the thought-process here becomes grooved into considerations mainly of cogency in the arguments for and against. Speakers busy themselves with the logic of their fellow-debaters, and their tone and method of dispute tend to be combative. They do not, as do speakers in discussion expect to *learn* from one another or to *better* the solution by a *pooled* effort. As debaters they speak to *win* a decision in favor of something on which their minds are supposed to be made up. The course of thought consists in the presenting and criticizing of a trestle-work of premise and fact by which their "proposition" shall stand or fall.

A debate, then, is a form of public competition between private solutions. It lays open to inspection the evidence for one view of the case and accepts an ordeal by battle for the soundness of one elaborated interpretation. Where the issue is a large and complicated matter on which popular thinking has milled around two or three prevailing contentions, debate does three needed things:

(1) It brings the whole medley of data and contentions into an orderly logical scheme,
(2) It draws attention to fallacies that beset the course of thinking,
(3) It precipitates a decision.

The leader who has made the kind of educational inspection of his group that was earlier advised may at once recognize certain difficulties which would jeopardize the use of discussion in his present program. Some of these difficulties result from habits and expectations that have become established and characterize his group as an organization. For example:

The rooms at the group's disposal are ill-suited to discussion meetings.
The purpose of the organization is not understood by the membership to include educational discussions.
The leaders of the organization have been so absorbed in their

responsibilities with lectures, entertainments and other "events" that they have not given serious thought to the possibilities of discussion.

The leaders who would be expected to handle a discussion meeting, if held, are accustomed to "chair" meetings according to parliamentary procedure.

The leaders do not expect to make much *preparation* for conducting a discussion.

The meetings of the membership are too large for satisfactory discussion.

The members differ too much in maturity for satisfactory discussion.

Members have such diverse interests in coming to the meetings that it would be harder to attract them by discussion topics than it is to do so by lectures.

Members do not know how to participate in problem-solving approached in a cooperative rather than an argumentative manner.

Members know each other so well that special skill would be required to present an issue in which they would not feel they could predict what each would say.

The group is in the habit of considering itself an audience to be entertained rather than as contributors to the success of the meeting who should come prepared to take part.

Where these difficulties appear in combination, the leader will make only a partial and tentative use of discussion, especially at first. A strong leader who is ready to take pains can minimize these handicaps, but he will move slowly and not overtax the willingness of his group.

Again, there are difficulties which are felt in the nature of discussion itself. They are sometimes expressed as follows:

(1) "It is a slow process."

Time is limited, and it takes time to draw out the members' experience, to recognize the points of view in relation to the whole problem, and to move together in a workmanlike thought-procedure. By using discussion the group will cover but one topic where a lecture or assigned readings would "cover" three. A group studying the criteria for detecting bias in the news articles they were reading took twenty-five minutes to develop a list which a good lecturer could have presented them in five.

So slow does discussion seem as compared with the tempo of an address that members feel they are not getting anywhere. "Why can't we get the good of discussion," they will ask, "by doing it among ourselves after the meeting?"

(2) "It deals with the subject on a lower level of information and communication than that of a lecture."

Members feel that they have come together not merely to compare what they already know and believe, but to hear what the subject means to someone with a higher level of contact, material, outlook, and analytic power. Why, then, use the occasion merely in listening to friends who know no more of the subject than they do themselves—as if wisdom would somehow come from pooling everybody's lack of facts! Discussion, it is true, often uses an invited expert who sits in with the group to answer questions, but even here, some will ask, "Would not the expert give us a more interesting and adequate presentation, if we made him free to round out his own special contribution?"

(3) "It stirs up antagonisms in the group."

Important issues are likely to involve deep-rooted feelings which break out in contentious speaking. At a Geneva Institute, French, German, Polish, and Roumanian students may listen unruffled to a lecture on minorities, but if someone starts a discussion on the issue, they may either get into recriminations, or—fearing that may happen—relapse into polite silence. Talk on such matters makes special demands on tact and tone, on social wariness for the "hot spots" and blocks to understanding in people's minds. Well-intended but heavy-handed dealing with these points may do more harm than good, for insight cannot be forced on minds made emotionally resistant.

All these possibilities of difficulty must be frankly faced by anyone desiring to lead his group into the ways of discussion. They are not disabling difficulties, provided he has the good sense to use discussion flexibly, and not to overtax people's faith in it. "Discussion method" should not be allowed to impose a patternized march of thought without checks and changes according to circumstances. The leader who uses a little resourcefulness will know when the difficulties call for a stop and when they will stimulate a sense of adventuring forward.

Particularly, he will not be stopped too easily by the complaints

we have just quoted. When members say, "Discussion is slower than a lecture," he may well ask, "Slower *for what?*"—for getting organized information passed from one mind to many, yes; but for getting information related to experience, for developing skill in evaluation, for sensitizing people to differences of view, decidedly no. For these learnings the way of the lecture may be not only slower but actually non-arriving. Again, when discussion is said to run "at a lower level of communication," he should help members to see where there are offsetting gains: for example, where the pooled experience of the group is needed, or where members expect to *act* on what they are learning. Their own language in such cases is not only sufficient but keys the ideas at the level where they will feel them as their own. As to the fear of "hot spots" and emotional blocks in discussion, let him first remind the doubter that these are the marks of reality and sincerity in the speaking, and then try to interest him in the way discussion teaches definite skills for dealing with these difficulties, and is therefore a laboratory for democratic leadership.

The special considerations which invite the use of discussion may be offered in the following list:

Discussion serves:

1. To maintain a balance of listening and of contributory activity for the members in an educational program.
2. To bring information near to the members' day-to-day concerns.
3. To increase the alertness of members toward information to be introduced.
4. To clarify the thinking of the group about material which has been presented.
5. To make problems carrying only academic interest more alive and personal.
6. To pool member experience around a common problem.
7. To induce the appreciation of differing points of view.
8. To help members face in a self-scrutinizing spirit the psychological difficulties involved in reaching agreements where emotions and prejudices are part of the problem.
9. To deal directly with opinions and assumptions which underlie the arguments used on controversial subjects.
10. To place the initiative toward better understanding between members on the members themselves.

11. To afford practice in cooperating with those who differ with one.
12. To increase confidence in the solvability of contentious problems.

In general let it be conceded that a lecture and not discussion is in place: (1) when the need of the group is for *more facts;* (2) when the need has been *felt* by the members; and (3) when an authority on the subject is present. It is sometimes wise to make sure that the lecturer respects the second of these conditions, and begins with facts for which their interest has been awakened. Only by getting *something* of what they want will they move with him to things that he wants them to want.

Special considerations that invite the staging of a forum are the following:

1. Where the opportunity to hear and question an authority will stimulate the group (either beforehand or afterwards) to read a book he has written.
2. Where the speaker ably represents a view against which the group is conventionally and like-mindedly prejudiced.
3. Where the members have already discussed the speaker's topic together, but have got beyond their depth in it.
4. Where they have discussed the topic rather theoretically and the speaker brings fresh observations from the scenes of action.

These instances show that the educational experience of a group with a subject will often span three or more meetings within which discussion, lecture, and forum advance their interest and learning, each by its own special kind of stimulus and enrichment.

Debating has of late come in for a good deal of criticism, chiefly on three grounds:

a. It stages what should be a problem of social engineering as a duel of wits.
b. It tends to decide things by logic where the problem mainly lies in people's emotional attitudes.
c. It sticks to "facts" to the neglect of "facts-in-the-making" —namely changes in human nature which a willingness to believe helps actually to bring about.

Granting these limitations, however, there are stages in the development of opinion and action on social issues at which debate does

an educational or a practical service. For a study-group on international relations a debate may serve—

1. To move people's minds for the first time with real analysis and competent precision through the whole sweep of an issue that has become muddled by loose thinking.
2. To bring the leaders in a public controversy, who tend to inflame opposition when they speak against *absent* opponents, into a *face-to-face-check-up on what their statements mean* —a check-up mutually made in the presence of the group as witness.
3. To bring a proposed solution which has been previously worked out by cooperative discussion in a small group before a large body for its official acceptance.

In the last case the creative work has already been done in conference. The debate is a sequel made necessary by the impracticability of repeating a conference process either within a large meeting or by breaking the meeting up into discussion-groups. An agreement reached by representatives through discussion will not automatically appeal to all the persons they represent. The debate therefore wins as complete a confirmation as a large body can give.

One form of debating that has appeared in some schools eliminates its usual combativeness. As many "teams" take part as there are aspects to a question. Usually there are three or four main aspects, each debater speaking for one which he personally believes in. An award is made to the individual debater who is most able and fair-minded in his presentation and rebuttal. Debaters are encouraged to admit what they see of truth in the arguments of others and even to offer modifications of their own argument in view of the conflicting evidence. The audience may ask questions of speakers or add points of testimony. Thus the hearers are challenged to join in a search for a better understanding rather than for arguments with which to "down" the other speakers.

A kind of cross between debate and forum can be usefully achieved in a "symposium." Here the issue is clarified by several speakers, all having special qualifications, but representing diverse points of view. They occupy the platform together, present their contributions in turn, and answer challenges from one another—all in the presence of an audience. In recent institutes on the community relations of Protestants, Catholics, and Jews such a symposium of

leaders—called a "U-Table"—has proved an instructive episode in the whole discussional experience.

Some readers may fairly urge that what has been said about debate in this section applies too restrictedly to the debating of college students. In the best parliamentary debating speakers accept the modifying of their own proposals from one another, or refer them to joint committees where they are subjected to efforts at conciliation and finally come back for an argued appraisal that really seeks to integrate the interests of all concerned.

All these considerations as to the educational values that are distinctive of discussion, forum and debate should appear in the teaching of these disciplines at college. The steady growth of adult education by the guided give-and-take of lay speakers requires that we qualify our students not simply to acquit themselves creditably when they take part, but to assume a leadership in planning and "chairing" group efforts that really "get somewhere."

STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS OF THE SERMONS OF DR. HARRY EMERSON FOSDICK

GILBERT STILLMAN MACVAUGH
The American University

Can it be that the pedagogics of public speaking have been all wrong? Modern writers on public speaking technique are commonly agreed that the most effective form of an introduction is one which is brief and one which is attention-getting.[1] "Lengthiness must be avoided at all costs,"[2] has become the conventional dictum of public speaking teachers. Furthermore, it is believed by some that "too lengthy an introduction destroys interest" in the speech long before the main ideas are reached.[3] Even Quintilian, in writing of the length of the *exordium*,[4] said, "It should propound rather than expound and

[1]Sandford, W. P. and Yeager, W. H.: *Principles of Effective Speaking;* p. 175, Thomas Nelson and Son, N. Y., 1930.

[2]Sandford, W. P. and Yeager, W. H.: *Business and Professional Speaking;* p. 78, McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y., 1929.

[3]Sandford and Yeager: *Principles of Effective Speaking;* p. 167.

[4]According to Quintilian, *Narration* was the remaining part of the introduction which stated the contents of the speech which were to be developed

should not describe how each thing occurred but simply indicate the points on which the orator proposes to speak." In speaking of arousing attention, he continues, " . . . . We shall contribute still more to this effect if we give a brief and lucid summary of the case . . . . "[5] in the *exordium*. It was Cicero, after having discussed the amassing of material to be used in the speech, who said in reference to the content of the *exordium*, " . . . . the judge should only receive a slight impulse at the outset."[6] He believed the function of the *exordium* was to gain for the orator favor in his hearers' minds. Having done this succinctly, he should state the facts in the case and proceed immediately into the argument. Elsewhere, while quoting Terence,[7] Cicero stresses the element of brevity in the *exordia* by remarking, they "should be like vestibules and approaches to houses and temples" and not as large as any major room within the house or the temple. Another conviction is that climax is best attained, usually, by placing the strongest ideas last, that is, the order of climax should be one of increasing vividness wherein the least vivid ideas are placed first, or wherein the most important is placed last, the next in importance first, and the least important in the middle.[8] All these are traditional dicta which have reverberated through the rhetorical centuries and which are still taught in our colleges today. Is it possible that these teachings are, after all, not the most effective methods of structuralizing a speech?

At any rate, these dicta seem to have dominated the speeches made in the recent past. An impartial and random selection of thirty speeches (made by prominent men during the period from Beecher to the present) which were surveyed to discover the practical validity of these rhetorical dicta, seems to substantiate the fact that the above mentioned methods have been popularly accepted. (cf Datum I. and III.)[9]

in the *Argument*. The Introduction, then, contains the *Exordium* and the *Narration*.

[5]Quintilian: *The Institutio Oratoria;* Vol. II, Book IV, 35 and 34. English translation by H. E. Butler, Putnams' Sons, N. Y., 1921.

[6]Cicero: *De Oratore;* Book II, CLXXIX, p. 318. Translated by J. S. Watson, Geo. Bell & Sons, London, 1881.

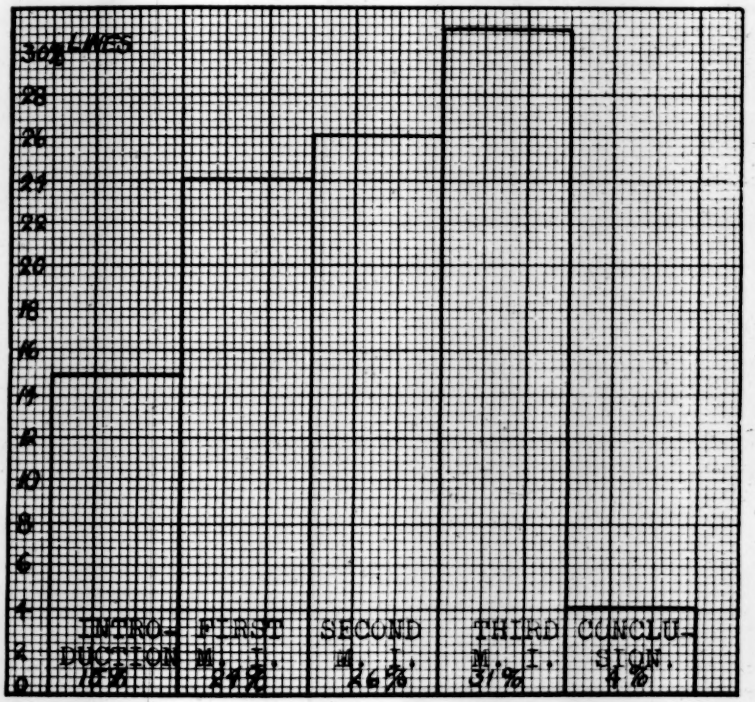
[7]Cicero: *ibid*, p. 318 also note[2].

[8]Sandford and Yeager: *Principles of Effective Speaking;* p. 192.

[9]Data II. and IV. appear at the end of this paper; these are the calculations from which the graphs were made.

DATUM I.

Per Cent of Lines in Speech Structure Parts of Thirty Random Speeches from Beecher to Present.



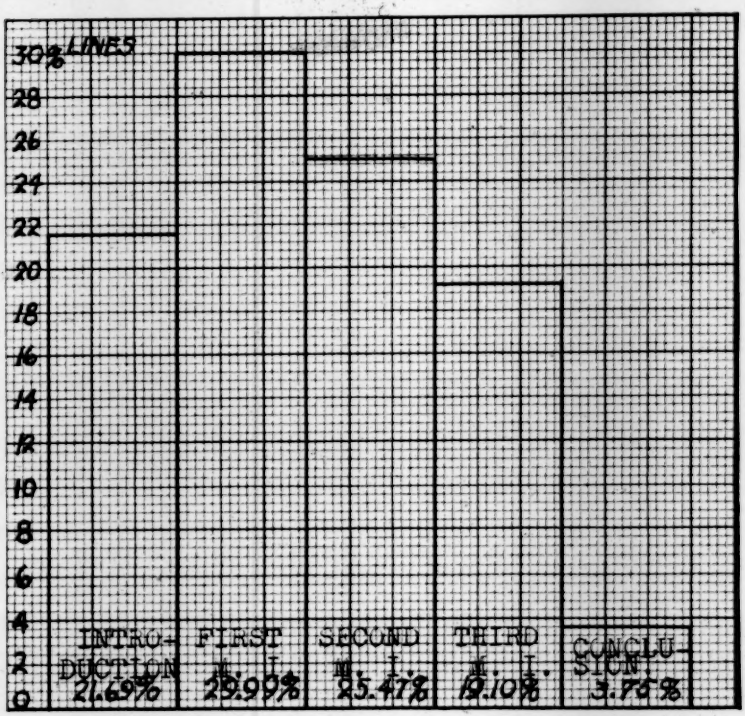
SPEECH STRUCTURE PARTS

Now, when a man who is endowed with *die Rednergabe* and who is one of no meager prominence in the eyes of the public-speaking world repudiates these rhetorical dicta, it is inevitable that the secret behind his innovations will be sought after and studied. In this instance one of the world's foremost ministers, Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick, is the repudiator of these dicta; and this writing will be devoted to a presentation of the innovations found in his sermon structure.

His conception of good sermon development is to aim for climax, but the climax ought to be based on "a principle of emotional climax

DATUM III.

Line-Fatigue Principle In Fosdick's Sermons: Per Cent of Lines in Speech Structure Parts of Eighteen Random Sermons: (Period: Four Years)



SPEECH STRUCTURE PARTS

in appeal and of moral impressiveness rather than a climax of idea." It is a climax which is to be *felt* by the audience as a result of the total effect of the sermon instead of a climax which comes as a result of a cold, logical induction or as a result of a holding back of the best ideas for the final main point.[10] Therein lies a suggestion of the first innovation.

[10]This information he furnishes to all students in his classes of Practical Theology at Union Theological Seminary, N. Y. Parenthetically, the writer was one of Dr. Fosdick's students.

Before going further, it seems wise to explain how these innovations are dealt with graphically. The writer has in his possession many of Dr. Fosdick's printed sermons in which he uses consistently the transitions "In the first place", "In the second place", and "In the third place". His sermons, therefore, are so easy to outline that the reader perceives at once what his main ideas are. All the material preceding "In the first place" is assumed to be the introduction. Now, taking one line of the printed manuscript as the standard of measurement, the writer counted in each sermon all the lines in the introduction, in the three main ideas, and in the conclusion. As can be seen by inspection of Datum IV.,[9] the percentage of lines of the whole sermon found in each of the five parts of the speech structure was computed and tabulated.[11] This procedure was followed for each sermon, and the results were arranged in columns to get the average percentages of the five parts in the "average" sermon. The "average" sermon is shown in Datum III.

Now, since an important idea is to be announced first, in order to gain the audiences' attention and to begin the explication of the theme immediately, it is imperative that it be made concretely vivid. This necessity requires two things, *viz.*, first, that the important idea be stated and expanded in the introduction; and second, that greater space be utilized in the development of the introduction.

Public speaking instructors advise the use of brief introductions, which, ordinarily, ought not to occupy more than twenty lines similar to those used in computation here. Students are advised to "get attention, get it quickly, and then pass to the discussion of your main ideas".[12] In the first place then, despite this convention of brief introductions, Dr. Fosdick's introductions average ninety-two lines per sermon or 21.69 per cent of the total sermon manuscript. Under the requirements of his method, it would be difficult to develop the initial important idea with any degree of adequacy in fewer lines.

[11]For those who find fractions difficult, these percentages were multiplied by 100.

[12]Sandford and Yeager: *Principles of Effective Speaking;* p. 175. In the *Art of Debate* by W. C. Shaw, p. 330, that writer would make the rule more general and thus agree with Fosdick's approach. Shaw says, the speaker " . . . . may assign not more than one-third of the speech to the Introduction; at least one-half to the Discussion; and not more than one-sixth to the Conclusion."

The writer does not desire to mislead the reader by making any dogmatic assertion that length of space is always an index to the importance of an idea—not at all; but, assuming that his sermons in no place descend to superficialities and recalling that his advice is to start the sermon with a very important idea, one immediately recognizes the logic of the system. If there are no superficial spots and if the beginning is of utmost importance, then it follows that one is justified in assuming that length is an indication of importance, because the first part of his sermons is unconventionally long. (By the first part is meant the introduction and the first main idea.) Not only are his introductions unusually long as compared with those shown on Datum I., but also they are, on the average, 2.59 per cent longer than his own third main idea and almost as long as his second main idea. If space is assumed to be an indication of importance, then his introductions are, at least, more important than his third main idea.

In the second place, this principle of "space-importance" is found to be applicable in regard to the importance and the length of the *first main idea*. On the average, the first main idea occupies almost one-third of the space of the whole sermon manuscript. It is evident here, on the basis of the above assumption, that greater importance is attached to the first main idea than to the second and that the second idea is more important than the third because the second is more fully developed than the third. Parenthetically, by some, the third or last main idea is the place where emphasis is most effectively used.[13] The author personally knows from empirical data gathered in the psychological laboratory that this belief is very sound. The reader, however, must realize that Dr. Fosdick is not greatly concerned with the space-emphasis or the place-emphasis factors *per se* but primarily with the total effect and impressiveness which the whole sermon makes on the congregation. He allows himself much more freedom in trailing his theme through the bypaths of thought

[13] Sandford and Yeager's *Principles of Effective Speaking;* p. 204; attention is called, however, to the fact that circumstances might alter the arrangement so that the first idea might be the strongest and most vivid in order to catch attention. This method is frequently used in formal debate.

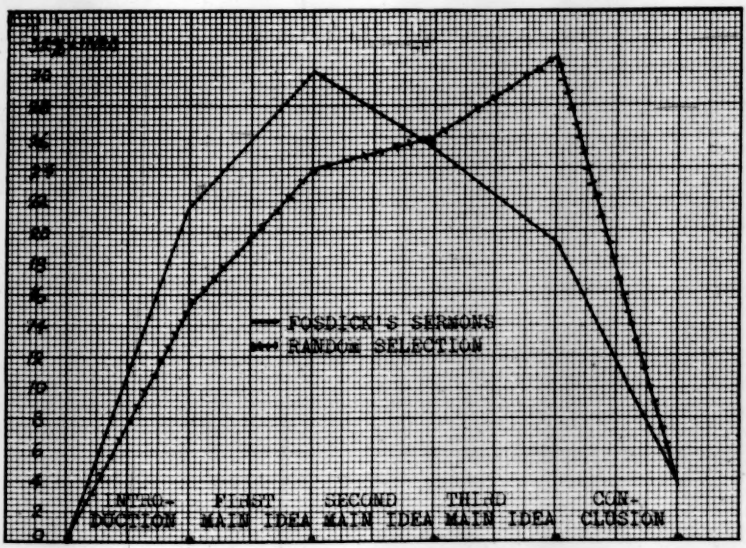
Prof. Phillips, in *Effective Speaking,* p. 169, is more in harmony with Fosdick's method in saying; "The governing rule is: that arrangement is best which most effectively attains the desired result."

and experience in the beginning of the sermon than at the end. More space is needed for such ramification, and thus space again seems to be an index of importance. "Emphasis by space consists simply of giving more time to those ideas upon which you wish to lay stress.[14]

The remainder of the sermon development beyond the first main point is concerned with further explication of the important theme sited in the introduction. The important thing to note here is that his sermons are, according to Datum V., skewed to the left, showing that greater space for development is devoted to the first part, as compared to Datum I. which on Datum V. shows that greater space for development is devoted to the latter part of the speeches. After passing over the first main idea, the curve, in Datum V., over the remaining parts of the speech structure gradually descends and thus indicates that the second and third main ideas do not have as many

DATUM V.

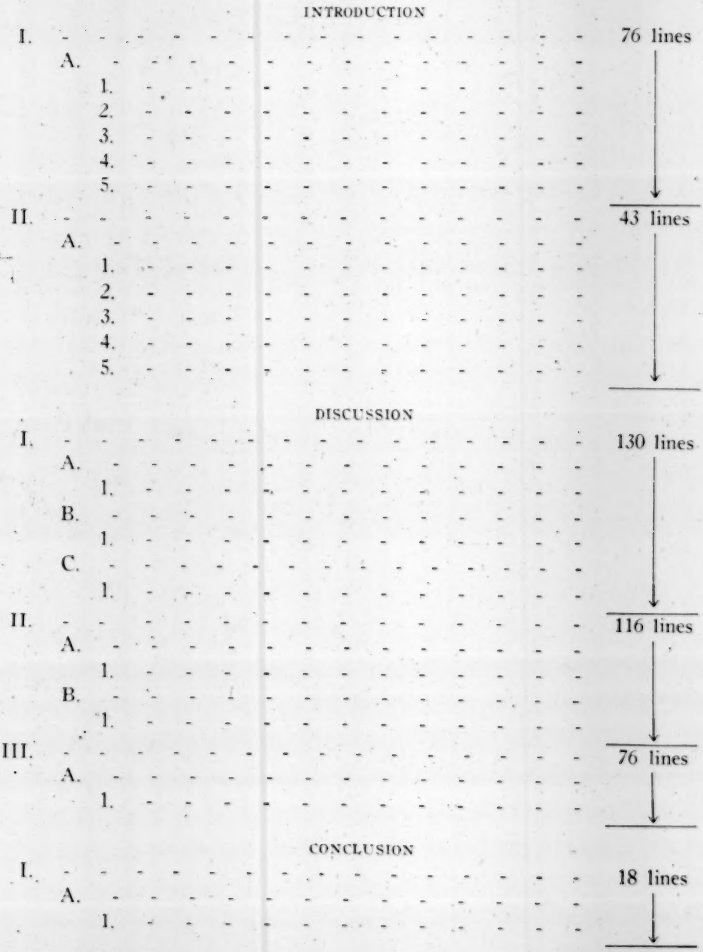
Comparison Showing Traditional Method of Speech Structure and Fosdick's Method of Initial Impressiveness by Stressing the First Part of Speech.



[14]Sandford and Yeager: *Principles of Effective Speaking;* p. 227, and Shaw: *ibid,* p. 260.

lines devoted to their development as did the first main idea. This descensive tendency does not indicate any relative unimportance of the content materials found in the last two ideas but only that less space has been given to the explication of them. The descension

DATUM VI.
Structural Outline of *Handicapped Lives*



of the curve is explained by another principle which the writer calls the line-fatigue principle. This too is an heretofore unheard of device among rhetoricians.

In the third place, after having seen the graphic representation of the importance Dr. Fosdick places on the first part of his sermons, the reader will be interested in another equally striking feature. This line-fatigue principle grows out of and is coexistent with the "space-importance" principle *q. v. supra* which is that more space is devoted to the development of the first part of the speech than to the second part, the last two main ideas, and the conclusion. Those who have listened to long sermons will recall that the intensity of one's concentration decreases with the prolongation of the strain of attending. If one sits attendingly through a ten minute speech, obviously, he is not as much fatigued at the end of this period as he would have been had the speech been twenty minutes or thirty minutes long. If the reader should set himself to outlining for example *Handicapped Lives,* (Datum VI.) which, to the writer, is one of Dr. Fosdick's best sermons, he will note that Dr. Fosdick recognizes this psycho-biological fact of fatigue and constructs his sermons accordingly.

The reader will see that in this structural outline there are two main points in the introduction. The second of these has less line-space devoted to its development than has the first point. There is an important reason for this difference. At the beginning of the sermon it is assumed that the congregations' minds are fresh and receptive. Dr. Fosdick, therefore, expects the hearers to be able to receive more ideas when their minds are fresh than if they were less receptive or tired. Because the audience is receptive at the beginning, he uses in this introduction seventy-six lines for the development of the first point and only forty-three for the second point —a difference of thirty-three lines. Upon commencing the development of the second point in the introduction, he realizes that the ability of the audience to concentrate has been somewhat, though not appreciably, diminished. Recognizing this, he taxes the congregation much less mentally by requiring them to attend over a much shorter space of time for the second point. Put mathematically, it appears as though the *ratio of content to receptivity is kept at unity;* wherein the numerical values of receptivity at the outset are as great as the numerical values of content. That is, as the power to concentrate

upon or to receive ideas diminishes, so too are the number of lines of printed manuscript decreased.

It will be noted that the same principle holds in the number of lines given to each main idea in the discussion proper. Each successive idea, after the first, has fewer lines devoted to its development than does its predecessor. That is, as the audiences' intensity of concentration upon each main idea lessens, they are required to attend to each succeeding main idea for a shorter period of time. In the discussion, the first main idea contains 130 lines; the second, 116 lines; and the third, 76 lines. Each succeeding main idea indicates a decrease in the number of lines as the speech progresses toward the end.

In the fourth place, there exists in his sermons another interestingly novel method of dealing with the fatigue factor. In addition to finding a decrease in the number of lines utilized in the development of each consecutive main idea, the reader will also find a decrease in the number of sub-points supporting each consecutive main idea. As the sermon progresses, there is a decreasing degree of complexity of supporting material used in the explication of each subsequent main idea. This principle, for convenience, has been called the idea-fatigue principle.

Plainly, there are three main ideas. The first is "if we are to deal handsomely with our handicaps, we must at least have the grace to take not a negative but a positive attitude toward them". In developing this first idea fully, Dr. Fosdick uses 130 lines of printed manuscript. Moreover, these *130 lines* contain a further development of the idea through *three sub-ideas*. The second main idea is "if we are thus to take a positive attitude toward our handicaps, some of us will have to throw off a sense of false responsibility". At the beginning of the second main idea, realizing that fatigue has already set in, and, in order not to overtax the congregation mentally, he utilizes only *116 lines* and only *two sub-ideas* for its development; i. e., 14 lines and one sub-idea less than were used in the first main idea. The third idea is "if we are thus to take a positive and a hopeful attitude toward our limitations, ... we always can make a spiritual contribution to the world". In addition to using only *76 lines* to develop this last main idea, he uses only *one sub-idea* in further support of it. And so, it becomes clear that as the sermon progresses and fatigue increases in the audience, Dr. Fosdick not only decreases

the number of lines in each succeeding main idea, but also he supports each subsequent main idea with one sub-point less. The hearers are thus required to remember less and to listen for a shorter period of time to each succeeding main idea.

Lines	Main Ideas	Sub-Ideas
130	I.	3
116	II.	2
76	III.	1

It is not to be opined that both of these principles appear together invariably in every sermon. When there is not absolute consistency in the line-fatigue principle, there frequently occurs the idea-fatigue principle alone. Reference, for example, to the speech structure outline of *Christianity and Unemployment* (Datum VII.) will clarify this fact. In this sermon, there are in the first main idea *three sub-*

DATUM VII.

Structural Outline of *Christianity and Unemployment*

INTRODUCTION

A. 99 lines
1.
2.
I.

DISCUSSION

I. 119 lines
A.
1.
B.
1.
C.
1.
II. 134 lines
A.
1.
B.
1.
III. 106 lines
A.
1.

CONCLUSION

I. 18 lines

ideas but *only 119 lines;* in the second main idea, there are *two* supporting *sub-ideas* with *134 lines*, that is, 15 lines more and one sub-idea less than the first main idea; and under the third main idea, there is only *one sub-idea* with 106 lines. It is thus clear that he manifests his ability to cope effectively with the problem of fatigue in the attending congregation.

The conclusions are invariably short—even shorter than those indicated in Datum I., and they comply with the conventional method of brief conclusion construction. His sermons, usually require about one-half hour for delivery. Realizing that this is a long attending period, the conclusions are always brief—the average contains only 16 lines or 3.75 per cent of the entire manuscript.

Now, it is not to be supposed that the line-fatigue principle has not been dealt with in many other ways; it has. The use of the elements of interestingness, occasional humor, variation in rate and of emphasis in delivery, very intimate and personal appeals to the vital wants of the audience, and by the aid of the very numerous beneficial, external features of the building—not excluding the unusually comfortable pews—, etc., all these he has arranged and uses to hold the congregations' attention and to offset fatigue in order "to get his impressions across". *In toto*, apart from the exceptions which this writing expands, Dr. Fosdick, although he never used any text book of public speaking in his training, utilizes in no small degree the basic principles contained in *Effective Speaking* [15] and *Principles of Effective Speaking*. [16]

The wonder of all this is, (and it was as much a shock to the writer as it probably will be to the reader) that Dr. Fosdick was totally unaware of these specific details in his sermon structures. Upon learning of these findings he replied, "I am reminded of the poet who saw an analysis of his method in writing poetry and was astonished because he had never thought of it before". Both the surprise of the poet and of Dr. Fosdick are not unusual. All men have expressed a degree of surprise when they, for the first time, discovered in nature the operation of new laws which had been, to them, theretofore unformulated. And so, it is natural for a man to express surprise when he sees, mathematically formulated, the rules

[15] Phillips, A. E.: *Effective Speaking;* Newton Co., Chicago, 1908 and 1929.
[16] Sandford and Yeager: *Principles of Effective Speaking; supra.*

DATUM II.[t]

Thirty speeches from Brooks to the present showing percentage of lines in each structural part.

No.	Speaker	Int.	I	II	III	C
1.	Brooks	13	23	19	42	3
2.	"	22	22	5	45	6
3.	"	15	19	20	43	3
4.	Beecher	11	25	16	43	5
5.	"	27	19	21	29	4
6.	Cadman	15	16	32	34	3
7.	McDowell	4	38	42	14	2
8.	"	11	14	31	42	2
9.	"	27	39	24	10	0
10.	"	9	16	32	38	5
11.	Borah	10	27	29	30	4
12.	Young, O. D.	13	13	20	50	4
13.	"	6	23	43	25	3
14.	Swope	11	19	47	18	5
15.	Wilson	35	26	24	10	5
16.	"	9	47	16	25	3
17.	"	18	18	32	24	8
18.	"	13	29	13	37	8
19.	Gibbons, J.	4	15	29	48	4
20.	"	6	21	25	45	3
21.	Abbott	12	32	22	30	4
22.	Hughes	18	22	30	28	2
23.	"	31	23	17	21	8
24.	Bliss	26	18	25	29	2
25.	Gifford	14	12	23	41	10
26.	"	6	28	37	24	5
27.	Sizoo, J. R.	17	38	14	30	1
28.	"	14	22	40	22	2
29.	"	18	36	25	20	1
30.	"	10	38	29	21	2
	Average	15	24	26	31	4

[t] Percentage tables from which Datum I. was used.

Impartial and random selection: the first speech encountered which contained three main ideas was used herein.

DATUM IV.*

Eighteen sermons preached by Dr. Fosdick over a period of four years. (A). Number of lines in structural parts. (B). Tables showing the percentage of lines in each structural part.

No.	TITLE (A).	Int.	1.	11.	111.	C.	Total
1.	Mystery of Life	116	104	118	73	18	429
2.	Handicapped Lives	119	130	116	76	18	459
3	Pull Yourselves Together	89	149	86	66	26	416
4.	A Little Morality is a Dangerous Thing	76	122	93	74	39	404
5.	Forgiveness of Sins	95	90	113	96	18	412
6.	Greatness of God	185	84	111	74	9	463
7.	The Wrong Way to Build a Church	62	140	91	71	18	382
8.	Christ and the Inferiority Complex	193	46	44	90	7	380
9.	Jesus' Appeal to the Irreligious	77	154	174	132	11	548
10.	Christianity and Unemployment	99	119	134	106	18	476
11.	Judas, Not Iscariot	21	117	120	160	14	492
12.	Christianity's Supreme Rival	158	82	129	91	18	478
13.	Making the Best of a Bad Mess	58	128	110	56	9	361
14.	Our Moral Muddle	103	130	117	43	0	393
15.	Overcoming the World	37	204	62	99	17	419
16.	Personal Responsibility in the Present Crisis	85	117	115	53	21	391
17.	What Are You Standing For?	18	138	137	66	28	387
18.	Handling Life's Second Bests	64	178	88	44	1	375
	Average	92	127	108	81	16	432

of which he had been theretofore totally unaware and by which the orderly operation of his mind has been governed. The writer cannot withhold the inclusion of another statement. It is "most surprising .... to read the schedule you have made out for my sermons. .... I did not write them by schedule; and if I have worked out such a practical technique, as you describe, I have rather blundered into it by wanting to get my business done with the congregation as effectively as possible and feeling my way toward that end rather than planning it". (What an effectual blunder! What an artistic feeling!)

The aim of this writing has been to stress (1) Dr. Fosdick's persistent and effective use of a seemingly over-emphasized, unconventional, and lengthy introduction; (2) the fact (a) that the skewness of the sermon structure toward the first part and (b) that a

(B).

Percentage of Lines

No.	Int.	I.	II.	III.	C
1.	28	24	27	17	4
2.	27	28	25	16	4
3.	21	36	21	16	6
4.	19	30	23	18	10
5.	23	23	27	23	4
6.	39	19	24	16	2
7.	16	36	24	19	5
8.	51	12	12	23	2
9.	14	28	32	24	2
10.	21	25	28	22	4
11.	4	36	24	33	3
12.	33	17	27	19	4
13.	16	35	30	16	3
14.	26	33	30	11	0
15.	9	48	15	24	4
16.	22	30	29	14	5
17.	5	36	35	17	7
18.	17	47	23	12	1
Aver.	22	30	25	19	4

*Impartial and random slection made from those sermons in print.

gradual decrease in complexity in each succeeding main idea seems to indicate an apparent "instinctive" repudiation of the accepted methods used in traditional speech structures; (3) his use of the line-fatigue and idea-fatigue principle wherein the first main idea has (a) either more lines or ideas than the second—and the second has either more lines or ideas than the third, or (b) wherein the first main idea has more sub-points than the second—and wherein the second main idea has more sub-points than the third main idea.

These three factors emphasize three things; first, the audience is not permitted to reach the fatigue line, because of the excellent use he makes of the space element. Second, at the beginning of the sermon he is able to plunge more deeply into the details of the subject and to use more finesse, when and because the hearers' minds are fresh and receptive, than he could in the second half of the sermon, because of the opposite reason. At the beginning of the sermon,

there is greater hope of his thoughts being followed much more closely than at the end of the sermon. To make an ineradicable impression—not to have the congregation remember a group of facts is his desideratum. Third, there is indicated a possibility that the ancient writers did not have a corner on the truths by which orators live. Theirs and later teachings may not all be wrong, but it is apparent that Dr. Fosdick's unique method is a contribution to the history of oratory and preaching.

The final result is that the speech critic perceives immediately the perfect sense of balance and design contained in the unique sermon structures of this Sir Christopher Wren sermonizer. If the popular acceptance of Dr. Fosdick's preaching is an index of the efficaciousness of his method, then here is a new psychological approach to effectiveness and to impressiveness which is destined to be placed alongside of or, in part, to supercede the other accepted and age old traditional methods of the rhetoricians.

SIDELIGHTS ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF ENGLISH

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Louisiana State University

ONE of the main reasons, it may be suspected, if not the main reason, for the widespread (though not general) acceptance of the speech of Southern England as *the* "standard" of English pronunciation has been the fact that the speech of London and its environs has been the most thoroughly studied, described, recorded, written about and propagandized of all the variant pronunciations of our language. Twenty-six years ago Sweet argued that "there seems every reason why the dialect of the capital should be taken as the standard of the spoken language."[1] However, his arguments in support of his contention have to a great extent lost their weight, particularly in America. First, he says, "there is the numerical preponderance of the speakers of the capital. Secondly, foreigners naturally gravitate to the capital, or, at any rate, make it their starting point." It is hardly necessary to point out that London can no

[1]Sweet, Henry: *The Practical Study of Languages;* 1906, New York, Holt, p. 42.

longer be considered the literary or cultural capital of the English-speaking world, though it may be of England. Similarly, neither Boston nor New York nor Washington nor Chicago nor any other city or locality holds that position in America, the national capital perhaps least of all.

The chief factor which accounts for the advantageous position which the speech of Southern England holds at present is the fact that most of the outstanding phoneticians of England have been from that part of the country. One needs only to mention the names of A. M. Bell, Ellis,[2] Sweet, Soames, Jones, Dumville, Ripman, Palmer, Wyld, as illustrative of the long line of scholars who have contributed most to our knowledge of modern spoken English. Teaching and studying in the schools and universities of South England, it was inevitable that they should collect and organize and publish information about the speech with which they came in daily contact; their writings would reflect the best of the speech about them, and by mere accumulation, if no other factors were operative, a weight would be given to their observation far beyond that given to less frequent and exhaustive studies of the other forms of pronunciation.

Furthermore, it was equally certain that their influence should extend abroad. In the absence of authoritative information on other forms of pronunciation, equally if not more extensive, but with full and adequate knowledge of that of South England, it was only natural that Continental phoneticians, and American in time, should follow the lead set by this scholarly group of British linguists. I do not know whether Jesperson was formally a student of Sweet; but it is certain that he "sat in" on a course of lectures given by the latter.[3] There were scarcely any others from whom to study. Western and Zachrissen both show the influence of this group; while evidences of that influence in America are to be noted in the teachings of Tilly, Grandgent and Padgett, and in the current agitation for the

[2]Alexander John Ellis. It was he who translated Helmholtz' *Tonempfindung,* and not Havelock Ellis, as Pillsbury and Meader would have us believe. (Psychology of Language, p. 90).

[3]Jesperson and H. Logeman (now of Sleydinge, Belgium) were at Oxford together in about 1890 to hear Sweet lecture. See *A Grammatical Miscellany Offered to Otto Jesperson on his Seventieth Birthday,* July 16, 1930. London, Geo. Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 1930. pp. 363-365.

establishment of the speech of South England as *the* standard pronunciation for the entire English-speaking world—a claim which has seldom been ventured, it should be pointed out, by those who know most about the speech of South England, or about speech in general.

The unfortunate aspect of this whole situation lies not at all in the fact that our knowledge of the speech of this one section is so complete; it lies rather in the fact that we do not have such information about other forms.[4] Yet a few interesting points may be found in the more or less obscure writings of one of the foremost English phoneticians of his time, R. J. Lloyd, which may serve to throw some illuminating sidelights on the validity of Southern English pronunciation as a standard for all English-speaking people.

R. J. Lloyd did not belong to the above-mentioned group of Southern English scholars. He was born (1846) and reared in Liverpool, and at the time of his tragic death (1906) was a member of the faculty of the University of Liverpool. He was an assistant editor of the *New English* (Oxford) *Dictionary* under Dr. Murray, and a frequent contributor to phonetic and philological journals, his writings being of consistently high scholarship.[5] In addition to his major writings, there were innumerable shorter papers and reviews which appeared from time to time. It is in some of these relatively minor papers that he has made a number of points that are worth noting.

In considering the acceptability of any form of pronunciation as a standard, certain criteria should be established. That of Southern England has been attacked on various grounds, mainly on the basis that it has no exclusive claim to being the speech of educated people; no one who has a smattering of information relative to the

[4]Rapid advancement is being made in the rectification of this fault. The work of Krapp and Kenyon, the American Dialect Society, and the publications in *American Speech*, have all made notable contributions to our information on speech in America.

[5]See, for example, "Speech Sounds and their Causations," which appeared in *Die Neueren Sprachen* through the years 1890 to 1892; "Researches into the Nature of Vowel Sound," reviewed by Benjamin Ide Wheeler in *Modern Language Notes* for 1891 (his thesis for the Doctor of Literature degree); "On the Acoustic Analysis of the Spirate Fricative Consonants," *Die Neueren Sprachen* for 1899; and "Glides between Consonants in English" in the same periodical through the years 1904 to 1906.

wide dispersion of education and culture can reasonably claim that it has. But these attacks have in the main, been defensive—an insistence on the part of the writers that while Southern English is good, other forms are equally acceptable, that there is no real "standard." Lloyd, however, takes another point of view. In his attacks he takes a definite offensive; not only are other forms, particularly the Northern English, acceptable as good speech; that of Southern England is in many respects definitely inferior.

A form of pronunciation, to be acceptable as a standard, should be fairly stable; it should be conservative in its tendencies to change, and resistant against innovations. Not that it must be static; no language has ever been permanently fixed. But lasting changes, those which have produced profound mutations in the form of a language, have been slow in developing. Witness, for example, the sound-shifts that occurred from Sanskrit to Greek, to Latin, to English; note also the Germanic vowel-shift *(Lautverschiebung)* which, according to Grimm, began about the First Century A. D., and the similar changes in English, one about the Twelfth Century and another about the Fifteenth.[6]

Certainly a form of speech which is subject to more or less sudden changes, to "gusts of fashion," has little claim, by this criterion, to being generally accepted as a universal standard. Note what Lloyd has to say on this point, with reference to the speech of Southern England:

> "London still controls the movement of language in the South. It comprises in itself the bulk of the Southern population. Its compactness gives to this great mass a unity of linguistic tendency which over-bears all conservative forces. The result is to accelerate greatly the pace of linguistic change . . . . . Educated English in the South lives amidst a continual struggle between metropolitan innovation on the one hand and the conservative

[6]Histories of language are legion. To mention a few: Storm, *Englische Philologie;* Müller, *Science of Language;* Whitney, *Language and the Study of Languages,* and *The Growth of Language;* Jesperson, *Growth and Structure of the English Language;* Sweet, *History of English Sounds;* Wyld, *History of Modern Colloquial English;* Skeat, *Principles of English Etymology;* Sturtevant, *Linguistic Change.* Pillsbury and Meader, in *Psychology of Language,* give a brief bibliography on p. 19, and illustrations of these changes on p. 211.

influences of culture and tradition on the other; and . . . . the conditions of the conflict are such as, locally at least, to give extraordinary strength to innovating tendencies. But in the North the conditions are somewhat different: the Northern educated community is not in any direct contact with vulgar metropolitan habitudes: they only come to it at second hand after having been tolerated and at last received by the Southern educated community. Many things in fact conspire to make the Northern type of Educated English more stable than that of the South. The Northern community is much too distant and too numerous to receive any controlling influence from the capital . . . . . In respect to educated speech these large communities (Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, etc.) greatly influence each other: but in respect to vulgar speech their tendencies are discordant and therefore powerless for innovation. They are undoubtedly influenced to a certain measure by educated Southern practice, but they are in constant touch, on the other hand, with educated Irish, Scotch and American pronunciations, all of which are conservative in tendency and therefore help to stiffen the resistance of the North to the rapidity of Southern change. . . . . On every practical ground one is disposed to rejoice in the sturdy conservatism of the Northern speaking-community. Sound-change is a very interesting study to the historic phonetician, but for every good end, whether utilitarian or aesthetic, the changes in spoken signs are a dead loss to humanity. It is through them chiefly that the world is afflicted with the present Babel of innumerable tongues, and through them too that the world's choicest treasures of spoken words are practically hidden from all ordinary men. Some measure of change is doubtless at present inevitable, but there can be no doubt whatever that, in proportion as language becomes a conscious structure rather than a random growth, it will become more and more intolerant of variation either in time or space . . . . .

"At present we have really in England two dominant speaking-communities, one centering in London and the other in the great towns of the North. The former is backed by the tendencies of phonetic change and by the prestige of metropolitan society: the latter is more countenanced by literary and rhetorical tradition, by orthoepical authority, by the established spelling and by all English speech external to England . . . . It seems to me unfortunate that no phonetic writer has hitherto based his account of the English language upon its Northern educated type,

so firmly held by the multitudes who speak it, so strong in its association with the past, so central in type and so self-consistent in form, so hostile to useless change, and so much nearer, in the simplicity of its sounds, to the dominant types of language."[7] Elsewhere Lloyd emphasizes the point that:

> "Even educated London English is subject to gusts of fashion which leave the general body of good English speakers totally untouched. At the present moment it is thought in certain circles to be the 'correct thing' to change final *-ng* to *n*. There are a dozen such vagaries, which come and go, for one which makes any permanent impress on the language. The 'country,' so-called has in fact a *veto* upon London, which it exercises much oftener than it gives way.[8]

Another criterion as to the acceptability of a given form of pronunciation as a standard is the manner in which these changes have come about. What influences have been at work which have led to the development or the establishment of a type of speech? From all the information available, one concludes that the great shifts that have occurred in language have been participated in by high and lowly alike, in the educated and the ignorant. It is not improbable that they were taken up somewhat more slowly by the conservative educated people, but over a period of generations, these changes were general. Here again Lloyd has some pertinent remarks relative to the influences at work on Southern English:

> "It seems, then, that to a neutral ear good Northern English sounds somewhat bookish and formal, whilst Southern English, though admirable in its best forms, is very widely vitiated by Cockney vulgarity and aristocratic affectation. The best English is spoken by the best-educated English society; and that is quite as much Northern as Southern. The reasons why the middle-class Northerner is usually so much more 'correct' in speech than his Southern countryman are to be found in their contrasted systems of secondary education. A century ago the middle-class Northerner spoke his local dialect. Roscoe, the Liverpool banker-historian, was noted in the House of Commons for his broad Lancastrianisms. But in the next genera-

[7] Review of Soames, Laura: *Introduction to Phonetics (English, French, and German)* in *Phonetische Studien*, V, 1892, pp. 78-96.

[8] "Standard English," *Die Neueren Sprachen*, II, 1894, pp. 52-53.

> tion Lancashire took great pains to acquire polite English, and it gave rise to the two classic orators of the century, Gladstone and Bright. From that day to this, English has been taught in the Northern secondary schools, as it never has been taught in the South, except in some girls' schools, and in some boys' schools of quite recent foundation. The so-called 'public' schools, Eton, Narrow, Rugby, etc., whose example dominates all secondary instruction in the South, continue to practice today the same utter neglect of their native language which has long characterized them all. Hence we find Mr. Sweet saying *(Handbook,* p. 112) 'My pronunciation is entirely natural and untaught —as much so as that of any savage. I never was taught either English pronunciation or English grammar at school:' and we readily understand that he tells the exact truth about the male population of Southern England when he says that such a thing as 'Standard English pronunciation' did not exist there."[9]

After referring to his analysis of the instability of Southern English speech[10], Lloyd goes on to say:

> "The above considerations will serve on the other hand to show how its powers of resistance have been weakened by the absence of authorized teaching. It was but natural that when Southern English was deserted by her natural protector, the Southern schoolmaster, the Cockney and the languid swell should combine to work their wicked will upon her purity. Hence the gap which in a comparatively short time has grown up between Northern and Southern English . . . . .
>
> "I regard it, therefore, as a fault, not easy at present perhaps to avoid, but certainly to be got rid of as soon as practicable, to base any instruction-book in English exclusively upon the practice of the South. There are some Southern forms which are tolerated in the North but seldom imitated. In these cases the Northern form is fully entitled to rank as good English along-

[9]Apropos of this statement of Sweet, one is reminded of a similar, earlier one by Ellis, in *Early English Pronunciation, 2,* p. 630, 1869: "At present there is *no* standard of pronunciation. There are many ways of pronouncing *correctly,* that is, according to the usage of large numbers of persons of either sex in different parts of the country, who have received a superior education. All attempts to found a standard of pronunciation on our approximate standard of orthography are futile."

[10]Review of Soames, *op. cit.*

side of the Southern. But there are Southernisms which the North does not tolerate, but vehemently rejects. Such are . . . *wot, wiit, wiil,* etc., for *what, wheat, wheel,* etc. What is to be done here? Northern educated people say *hwot, hwiit, hwiil,*[11] and they scout the Southern forms as inadmissable corruptions. It seems to me that the Northern forms are preferable, simply because they are more conservative . . . . . In questions of orthoepy the interests of thought, literature and society are entirely upon the conservative side. These are the interests for which language chiefly exist; and all conscious interference with language ought to be bent to their support."[12]

A third criterion of the validity of any "standard of pronunciation" has to do with the degree to which that form is representative of the speech of cultivated speakers. Time and again it has been pointed out that good speakers in different parts of the English-speaking world use different forms, and to the degree that these forms are widespread, to that degree they are acceptable as good English speech. In the introduction to his *English Pronouncing Dictionary*[13], Daniel Jones makes it clear that:

" . . . . the pronunciation represented in this book is that most usually heard in everyday speech in the families of Southern English persons whose men-folk have been educated at the great public boarding-schools. This pronunciation is also used by a considerable proportion of those who do not come from the South of England, but who have been educated at these schools. The pronunciation may also be heard, to an extent which is considerable though difficult to specify, from persons of education in the South of England who have not been educated at these schools . . . . It is not as a rule heard from Americans, South Africans or Australians; it is not as a rule used by those who have been educated at day schools in Scotland, Ireland or North of England, and it is not used by a considerable proportion of those educated at day schools in the South of England . . .

[11]The (*ii*) in Lloyd's transcription is the same as the present International Phonetic Association (i:).

[12]Review of True, E. Th., and Jesperson, Otto: *Spoken English, Everyday Talk, with Phonetic Transcription.* 1892, Leipzig, Reisland. In Phonetische Studien, VI, 1892, 106-108.

[13]London, J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd., New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1919. pp. VIII-X.

". . . . . It may be as well to add that I am not one of those who believe in the desirability or the feasibility of setting up any one form of pronunciation as a standard for the English-speaking world . . . . The fact that the scope of this book has been limited to the speech of the persons referred to (above) does not mean that I consider their pronunciation intrinsically superior to any other. On the contrary, it is clear to me that if we consider this type of speech on its intrinsic merits . . . . it will be found in no way 'better' than any other type."

Jones has recorded this form of pronunciation for two reasons,

"(1) because such a record has certain practical uses . . . .

(2) because it happens to be the only type of English about which I am in a position to obtain full and accurate information . . . . . "

With the limits on this form of speech as described by Jones, one is rather hard put to it to appreciate the claim often advanced that it is the "international, world-wide form of cultured usage.[14]

Lloyd, in this connection, has this to say:

"It happens unfortunately, as I think, for some of our leading English phoneticians that they are Londoners, and it hardly needs saying that London, where it has any peculiarities, is able and likely, by its own mere bulk and momentum to preserve them rather obstinately, even in opposition to the general flow and tendency of the national speech. Some of these peculiarities will no doubt succeed in impressing themselves eventually upon English universally, but it would be a gross error to assume that such will necessarily or usually be the case. London speech . . . . is not very favourably situated for impressing itself even on the home population, and already the great bulk of English pronunciation is exercised beyond the seas. It is important therefore for the foreign student to observe that in some points native London pronunciation is not, in the widest sense, English, and in many points is deliberately rejected by large masses, and even majorities, of educated people. . . . ."[15]

Still a fourth criterion is whether the proposed form of pronunciation represents a *via media* or an extreme, Three years ago the

[14]McLean: *Good American Speech*, p. 77.

[15]Review of Benecke, Albert: *English Pronunciation and English Vocabulary*, 6th Ed., Pottsdam, Stein, 1889. In *Phonetische Studien*, II. 1889, pp. 337-345.

writer pointed out [16] four chief differences between the so-called "standard" speech and the typical forms of American pronunciation that Krapp calls "general American." These four are (1) the use of *r* finally or before consonants; (2) the choice between (a) or (æ) on the one hand, or (a:) on the other; (3) the matter of elision in unaccented final syllables in such words as *oratory, laboratory, necessary,* etc.; (4) the value of the *o*-vowel in such words as *court, hoarse, ore,* etc. Lloyd mentions three "chief points where care is necessary." These three are: "(1) diphthongization, (2) the force of *r,* (3) the doubtful ă."[17]

As for diphthongization, Krapp points out that "the vowels (e:) and (o:) may become noticeably diphthongal, especially when final or before voiced consonants, in which case they are written (eɪ), (oʊ), as in *play* (pleɪ), *go* (goʊ). In standard southern British speech, these long vowels are said to be always diphthongal, and they are certainly more markedly diphthongal there than they ever are in American speech."[18] In the earlier years of the International Phonetic Alphabet, almost all long vowels in English except (a:) were considered as diphthongs, and were so transcribed by some writers as late as 1923: (sɪimz) *seems,* (sʊun) *soon;* and in 1930 Leonard Bloomfield, writing in *Le Maître Phonétique* (pp. 27-28), indicates diphthongization in (e'grij) *agree,* (tuw) *to,* (unaccented) ('pjuwrlij) *purely.*

Lloyd says: "The diphthongization which is at present so characteristic of Southern speech is only partially and feebly imitated in the North, and I doubt very much whether it will leave lasting traces in the history of the language."[19] "Diphthongization should be slight, otherwise it is Cockney."[20]

Apropos of the sound (e:), or (eɪ), throughout the year 1930 a lively controversy was carried on in the pages of *Le Maître Phonétique* relative to the need for a "middle *e*" symbol. Dumville insisted that the first element of the diphthong (eɪ) was, in Southern English, much more like the vowel in "let" than like that in "late."

[16] *Quarterly Journal of Speech,* XV, February, 1929, pp. 95-103.

[17] Standard English, *Die Neueren Sprachen,* II, 1894, pp. 52-53.

[18] The English Language in America, 1925, New York, Century. Vol. 2, p 11.

[19] Review of Soames' *Introduction,* etc., *op. cit.*

[20] "Standard English", *op. cit.*

If that is the case, then there is a rather fundamental difference here between the speech of Southern England and that of America; for whether or not the vowel is diphthongal in America, the first element certainly approaches the vowel in "late" much more closely than it does that in "let." It may be suspected that there are other differences as well. Krapp himself, in his transcriptions, almost invariably uses the pure vowel sign, although other writers, taking their cue from transcriptions of Southern English, regard (e:) and (o:) as regularly diphthongal.

> "The question of *r*," says Lloyd, "is more difficult. In London and some parts of the South, the *r* following a vowel at the end of a word or syllable, has disappeared: but there is no other part of the English-speaking world, except Eastern New England, where this is quite the case. . . . .A trilled *r* at the end of a syllable is decidedly Scotch; an 'inverted' untrilled *r* characterizes S. W. England; a weaker untrilled *r*, not inverted, seems to be the normal American pronunciation . . . . "[21]

The Northumbria "burr," which is often compared to the American so-called "inverted" *r*, is uvular and not lingual. The Southern pronunciation here, according to Lloyd, in its complete elimination of *r* in these positions, "does not seem to be the best. It is not a middle, but an extreme pronunciation," as it is in the case of diphthongization.[22]

In another article, he says,

> "It would have been a thousand pities if he (Benecke) had been led by some of his authorities to conclude that this *r* (at the end of English words and syllables) is practically *lost* in English. It is true that it exists in every possible degree of attenuation, so that in some cases it is properly describable as a mere *point-modification* of the latter part of the preceding vowel, but the cases in which it is *totally* lost to the ear are a small minority; and it is possible that even in these it is not quite lost *organically* . . . .

[21] "Standard English," *op. cit.* The writer has long maintained, in private conversations, that the typical American *r* is *not* inverted: there is no movement of the tongue which may be described as "curling upward and back." It is gratifying to note that Lloyd, almost forty years ago, had made the same observation.

[22] *Idem.*

Foreign students cannot too carefully mark that the entire obliteration of *r* in certain positions is not the rule in educated English, save in the metropolis and its immediate neighborhood."[23]

Grandgent determined that *r* before consonant is regularly pronounced by 81 per cent of careful speakers in the West, 64 per cent in the Middle (New Jersey, New York and Pennsylvania), 36 per cent in New England, and 24 per cent in the South.[24] It should be noted, however, that in the South even the medial *r* is almost if not completely lost. "The inhabitants of fully two-thirds of our country are generally inclined to pronounce *r* wherever the standard spelling requires it." Even in the "*r*-less" regions, "the schools have succeeded (to a very limited extent) in resuscitating the *r*, and in East New England the Irish influence is working toward the same end; on the other hand, Anglomania, which is rife in some of our Atlantic cities, tends in the opposite direction.[25]

As for the elision of unaccented syllables in such words as *oratory, necessary*, etc., transcriptions in *Le Maître phonétique* show that great divergences exist among careful speakers of Southern England. The same man will write (difərnt) and (difərənt); (nesəsrɪ) and (nesəseri). It is doubtful if even in Southern England there exists as much consistency as in the Northern or American (nɛsəserɪ). the same irregularity may be noted in the use of (o) or (ɔ) before *r*; there seems to be no agreement in Southern English as to just what the vowel should be.

In the matter of the "doubtful ă," Lloyd says, "I have never met any speaker, North or South, who consistently used either the long or the short vowel (a: or æ) in *all* doubtful words.[26]

It cannot reasonably be said that the speech of Southern England is a "middle." It employs the diphthongization of long vowels to a far greater degree than does any other recognized form of English, with the possible exception of certain dialects in our Southern States. In its almost complete elimination of the *r* final and before consonants, it stands alone, again with the exception of the typical speech of Southern United States and Eastern New England, in which

[23]Review of Benecke, *English Pronunciation*, etc., op. cit.

[24]Notes on American Pronunciation," *Modern Language Notes*, 6, No. 2, 82-87.

[25]*Idem*, Vol. 8, No. 5, 273-282.

[26]"Standard English," *op. cit.*

latter locality, as Grandgent says, "Anglomania is rife." It tends toward the extreme open (a:), whereas in practically all the rest of the English-speaking world the (æ) or the intermediate (a) is used or accepted as good; and even in this tendency there is in South England, as Lloyd points out, a notable inconsistency. And in the matter of the elision of the unaccented syllables, and the *o*-vowel before *r*, the same lack of uniformity is to be noted; although when there is such elision, it seems to be characteristically Southern English.

There is a fifth criterion of standard pronunciation, which Lloyd does not touch upon directly in the writings to which reference has been made in this study: and that is the degree to which one's speech betrays his origin. The point has been made by practically every advocate of the "received standard" that the best speech is that which is most nearly free from sectional peculiarities. McLean quotes Tilly as saying: "Of the best speakers it is not possible to say what part of the world they were born in. . . . . The best speaker is he whose pronunciation is free from local dialect, from class dialect and from artificial pronunciations.[27]

There are a great many people, it might be pointed out, highly educated, cultured, and excellent speakers, who have no objections whatever to revealing the place of their nativity; they do not shrink from the consequences of other people's knowing their origin. Hence the above argument will not appeal strongly to them. But the point to be made here is this: there is no form of English pronunciation, except some purely local dialects, which so definitely and so ineradicably puts the local stamp upon a speaker as does that of Southern England, or its approximate duplicate, that of Eastern New England. One may hail from Chicago or Liverpool, Los Angeles or Leeds, Seattle or Manchester, and, if he so desires, successfully conceal the fact from the ordinary ear; but if he be from Boston or Oxford, or Cambridge or London, his speech will betray him as certainly as the speech of the Ephraimites betrayed them at the passages of the Jordan. The influences of these centers grows weaker with the cube of the radius. Of the recognized forms of English pronunciation, the Southern English is probably least suited, in this one particular, to become the world standard.

[27] *Good American Speech*, p. 60.

Few authorities admit either the practicability or the desirability of anything approaching uniformity in our forms of spoken English: the divergences that exist are, except for purely local dialects, insignificant, and do not to any appreciable degree interfere with intelligibility; although the extreme elisions often heard in Southern English make speakers from that section sometimes extremely difficult to understand. And Vizetelly points out [28] that those races which habitually pronounce their *r*'s are easily heard, while those that do not are inaudible. If there is any advantage at all in the matter of intelligibility, it lies with the Northern and "general American," as compared with that of Southern England and Eastern New England.

The fact remains that the speech of Southern England (with which, it should be understood, is included Eastern New England) has not been generally accepted as a standard throughout the English-speaking world. The reasons why it has not, and why it is unacceptable, in summary, are these:

1. It lacks stability. It is subject to "gusts of fashion," which accelerate the pace of linguistic change. While some change is inevitable, it contributes nothing to the efficacy of the language, and has often been distinctly detrimental.

2. Because of the almost total absence of authoritative instruction in English pronunciation in the secondary schools, the present Southern English it to a large extent a product of the speech of those who were never taught to speak correctly. It is in effect a middle ground between Cockney and aristocratic affectation, neither of which represents the best of English culture.

3. Southern English is only partially representative of the speech of educated, cultivated speakers. That is, it represents only a minority. By no wizardry of accounting can it be maintained that the majority of educated speakers use it; and other forms are used, even more extensively, by equally cultivated speakers. Southern English is more truly subject to geographical delimitations than is the Northern and general American form.

4. Southern English represents not a *via media* between two extremes, but is itself one of the extremes. In the matter of diphthongization, elision, the force of *r*, the use of the "doubtful ă," and

[28] "A Matter of Pronunciation." *Atlantic Monthly*, February, 1931. pp. 148-151.

the *o*-sound before *r*, the speech of London and the South of England, where consistent at all, goes further in its usage than do other forms of recognized English pronunciation.

5. Quite contrary to the demand that a standard of pronunciation should not reveal the birthplace of the speaker Southern English, of the two chief forms of English pronunciation, far more certainly, more definitely, betrays the speaker's origin than does the Northern.

STUDIES IN THE TECHNIQUES OF RADIO SPEECH*

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MY interest in radio became active about three years ago with my appointment as chairman of the University of Wisconsin radio committee, charged with the development of a statewide program for education by radio. Shortly thereafter, I undertook to establish a course in radio speaking and was immediately confronted with a scarcity of experimental data on either the rhetoric or the delivery of the radio speech. When I came to tell my students what to do and what not to do, I found only general bits of advice: put a lot of soul into your voice; get radio IT; be in earnest; watch your s's; use short sentences; use long sentences; be formal; use the dramatization; use personal pronouns; and so on. It is evident that not all of these intuitive dicta can be correct, and that none of them can be finally accepted from the scientific point of view, until it has been tested and retested under the best experimental conditions available.

This need for research to determine the styles of radio speaking and writing best adapted to instruction over the radio has been stressed and restressed at this and preceding conferences. These studies, on which I am reporting this morning, make no pretense of completeness. We have examined only a very few of the many factors that influence success or failure in radio speaking; moreover, these studies are exploratory rather than definitive. They must be extended in scope and repeated before conclusions can be announced to a presumably waiting world.

*From a speech delivered at the Third Annual Institute, Education by Radio, Columbus, Ohio, June 1932.

Problem No. 1.

To study the relative effectiveness of the formal lecture, the informal talk, and the dialogue in giving instruction over the radio.

The investigation of this problem was undertaken in 1931 by Albert M. Fulton, then a graduate student in the Department of Speech at the University of Wisconsin.[1] This first was to prepare three speeches as nearly alike as possible in all essential points except in the matter of style. Mr. Fulton chose three stories concerning legendary characters in the early history of a Louisiana parish. He assumed—and correctly, as it turned out— that none of the students taking part in the experiment would know of these characters. Each story was reduced to forty sentences, containing the same number of items. From each of these summaries, seventy-four words were selected as key words. These sets of forty sentences were then made into completion tests by leaving blanks for the key-words and any repetitions thereof. A test was then made to discover whether the key-words were of approximately the same recall value, and adjustments were made until we were satisfied that the basic facts for the three speeches were of equal difficulty.

Next came the writing of the speeches in the three different styles. The formal style was defined as "a strict presentation of facts, few personal pronouns to be used, the speaker assuming a disinterested, impersonal attitude;" the informal, as "a presentation of facts through the use of many personal pronouns, the speaker assuming an intimate, personal manner;" and the dialogue, as "the presentation of facts through the use of many personal pronouns and 'talking sentences', the two speakers assuming an intimate, personal manner."

The speeches were constructed concurrently, a paragraph at a time. Care was taken to make the style of each speech distinctly the type already described. Whenever a name, date, or place was used in one paragraph, the same type of fact was used in the corresponding paragraphs of the other two speeches. In their final form there were, then, three speeches of approximately the same length, type, and number of facts, position, repetition, and distribution of facts, but in three distinct styles.

The speeches were carefully rehearsed so that they could be

[1]Fulton, Albert M.: *A Study in Modes of Oral Style in Radio Broadcasting.* Ph. M. Thesis, Unpublished, University of Wisconsin, 1931.

given by the same speaker and with equal skill over the radio equipment in the Speech Laboratory. The following order of presentation was used:

Audience I.	Audience II.	Audience III.
1st formal	1st informal	1st dialogue
2nd informal	2nd dialogue	2nd formal
3rd dialogue	3rd formal	3rd informal

Immediately after listening to each speech, the auditors were given ten minutes in which to take the completion tests. The scores made by each group in the second and third tests were weighted to take account of the amount of improvement due to practice in listening to the speeches and taking the tests.

The total *number* of facts recalled for each speech and the average number recalled by each individual are shown in the table below. *Weighted scores are used in each case.*

	Formal	Informal	Dialogue
Total number of facts recalled	2679.94	2678.67	2549.38
Average (73 auditors)	36.71	36.69	34.92

It is apparent that the scores made after listening to the formal and informal speeches are almost identical. The dialogue was slightly less successful as a medium for teaching but the difference is not large enough to be statistically significant.

But which speech was the most interesting? At the conclusion of the experiment each auditor was asked to rank the speeches according to his interest in them. These results of this phase of the investigation are indicated in the following table.

Style of Speech	Interest Rank 1st	2nd	3rd
Formal	35	30	6
Informal	33	25	13
Dialogue	3	16	52
Total Weighted Scores made on 1st, 2nd, and 3rd choices	2723.93	2506.26	2526.46

While there was a tendency for the listener to place first the speech on which he made the highest score, the difference is not statistically reliable. The employment of different forms of oral style by this experimenter failed to result in any significant difference in the number of facts recalled by the college students who served as auditors. Furthermore, the interest factor did not materially affect the number of facts recalled. Before this study can be regarded as definitive it should be repeated (1) with other speakers, (2) with other types of audiences, and (3) with other examples of the three forms of oral style. But these results should certainly serve to make a little less dogmatic the assertions that any one style is inherently the best for instruction over the radio.

Problem No. 2

How much, if anything, does a radio teacher lose in effectiveness because he cannot be seen by the audience?

The teacher before the class impresses his students through two physical senses: he is something to be seen and something to be heard. The radio speaker can make no use of the visible code. On the theory that two approaches are better than one, it has commonly been supposed that the speaker who is seen and heard is measurably more effective than the speaker who is just heard. Mr. Richard M. Phillips, a graduate student in Speech at the University of Wisconsin, made the preliminary study of this problem.[2]

The same general procedure was followed as in the first investigation. Two formal speeches were constructed using different sets of supposed facts, but similar in all other respects. The speaker would appear before the audience and give one of these ten-minute addresses, after which the completion test would be given. He would then give the other formal speech over the radio and the audience would then take the second completion test. Before the next audience the order would be reversed, the radio speech coming first and the platform speech second. Then two speeches using the informal style were prepared and used by the same speaker in a repetition of the experiment. The scores were weighted as before to make allow-

[2]Phillips, Richard M.: *The Relative Instructional Values of Radio and Platform Speaking.* M. A. Thesis, Unpublished, University of Wisconsin, 1931.

ance for improvement due to practice in listening and taking the tests.

The total number of facts recalled and the average for each listener are indicated in this table. *Weighted scores are used in each case.*

46 subjects	Platform	Radio
Total facts recalled (formal)	2609	2728
Average facts recalled (formal)	63.15	59.32
Total facts recalled (informal)	2266	2522
Average facts recalled (informal)	49.27	54.82

In the case of the formal speech the average score made by the auditor who saw the speaker was 3.83 higher than the average made by the radio listener. The usual statistical computations for evaluating the reliability of this difference show that it has 95 chances in 100 of being real. With the informal speech the situation is reversed. The radio listener made, on the average, a score that was higher by 5.55 than that made by those who saw the speaker. Here the difference has 99 chances in 100 of being real. Treating the 92 subjects as one group, we find that the average score for the platform speaking was 56.21; the average for the radio address was 57.06. This small difference in favor of the radio auditor is too small to be statistically significant.

At the conclusion of the experiment, two questions were asked: (1) Generally speaking, do you believe the platform lecture or the radio lecture more effective for instructional purposes? (2) What are your reasons for this belief? Of the group listening to the formal speeches 37 thought platform speaking more effective and 9 voted for the radio lecture; 33 of those listening to the informal speeches favored the platform speech, while 13 thought that the advantage lay with the radio address. In explanation of their votes those favoring the platform speaker said they liked to see the person who was speaking; that his bodily action, facial expression, and the presence of his personality added to his effectiveness. Those favoring the radio speaker said that with only one set of stimuli on which to concentrate, they were better able to absorb ideas and were not distracted by personality, mannerisms, or meaningless bodily movements.

The limitations of this study are obvious. It should be repeated (1) with other speakers, (2) with other types of audiences, and (3) with other addresses. However, it does serve to cast doubt on the assumption that the speaker inevitably loses greatly because his listeners do not see him. Indeed, it is quite possible to imagine speakers who would be more effective over the radio than in the presence of the audience.

Problem No. 3.

What is the best rate for speaking over the radio? Does it vary with the individual? For the same individual, does it vary with the material? Does it vary with the desired audience response? Should the radio speaker use a uniform rate? Or should he vary the rate as much as possible?

One of the first questions asked by the amateur radio speaker is, "How many words should I write for a ten-minute radio address?" The advertiser who is paying for every minute of broadcast time wants to know whether he should have his advertising continuity delivered as rapidly as possible or whether the largest returns would come from fewer words and a more moderate rate. During the past year I have been gathering some data bearing on this general problem.

Many of the writers on radio speaking advise a somewhat slower rate than in direct address on the theory that the listener is handicapped by his inability to see the speaker and hence needs more time to assimilate what he hears. Others, however, advise that the radio speaker use a more rapid rate on the assumption that when the listener does not see the speaker the rapid rate is necessary to hold attention. Textbooks on public speaking advocate variations in rate as a means of avoiding monotony; radio writers are inclined to favor a smooth, continuous flow of sound. All of these dicta are seemingly based on intuitive judgments.

Two problems are here indicated: (1) how rapidly the speaker talks, and (2) should his rate flow smoothly and evenly or should he vary it as much as possible. Data on the first problem is usually expressed in terms of the number of words spoken per minute; but, since I wanted to include both problems in this investigation, this method did not seem sufficiently accurate. Instead, the number of syllables spoken per fifteen seconds was taken as a unit, enabling us to study the variation in rate more accurately than would be possi-

ble with the use of the larger time unit. The index of variation in rate was secured by finding the average deviation and dividing it by the average, thus expressing the relationship in terms of percentages and making it possible to compare the variations with each other.

The only data on platform speaking expressed in these terms and hence available as a standard for comparison, dealt with rate and variation in college oratorical contests. Here the speakers supposedly represented a high standard of student speaking. The radio was not used.

MEASURES OF RATE AND VARIATION IN RATE

Table I. Showing the average rate and the variation in rate of 13 college students in their delivery of 15-minute speeches in oratorical contests. *Radio not used.*

Speaker	Av. Syllables per 15 sec.	A.D.	Ad/Av
I	43.3	5.5	12.8
II	53.3	7.3	13.7
III	48.4	5.9	12.1
IV	46.	8.6	18.7
V	47.6	7.1	14.8
VI	55.8	7.4	13.2
VII	44.5	6.5	14.7
VIII	50.7	8.2	16.1
IX	45.8	7.1	15.5
X	46.9	5.3	11.3
XI	48.2	5.8	12.0
XII	43.	7.5	17.4
XIII	48.8	9.66	19.8
	Average 48		Average 14.8

We decided to study four types of material commonly delivered over the radio: (1) the interpretative reading of selections from well known books, (2) the lecture that aims to convey information, (3)

the interview that aims to give information rather than to entertain, and (4) the sketch whose purpose is to entertain. In each case, the procedure was to have the same material presented by different members of the class in radio speaking. The performers did not know that the measurements were being made; they knew only that the class was judging the general effectiveness of their work. The plan, not completely carried out, was to have at least two readings by each individual so that one might get some idea of the effect of greater preparation and practice upon rate and variation in rate. Then, if each person gave, or took part in giving, each of the four types of material, some light would then be thrown on the question as to whether rate is an individual matter or whether it varies for each individual depending on (a) the type of material and (b) the amount of practice.

The data that follow are incomplete. In no case have enough measurements been taken to establish the statistical accuracy of any differences that may appear.

Table II. Showing the average rate and variation in rate of a number of college students in their delivery of various types of material *over the radio.*

A. Readings from Tarkington's "The Fall Over Georgie Bassett" (a narrative containing considerable dialogue.)

Speaker		Av. Syllables per 15 sec.	A.D.	AD/Av
Campbell	(a)	50.	4.2	8.4
	(b)	51.	4.2	8.2
Dammen	(a)	54.	6.3	11.6
	(b)	57.	6.3	11.
Kolls	(a)	45.3	4.6	10.2
	(b)	47.	4.8	10.2
Mundt	(a)	46.	5.2	11.3
	(b)	47.	5.7	12.1
Emmett	(a)	54.3	5.2	9.6
	(b)	58.8	6.	10.2
Davies	(a)	51.	5.4	10.6
		Average 51.		Average 10.3

B. Readings from Lecture on Wilhelm Conrad Roentgen.

Campbell	(a)	60.	4.7	7.8
	(b)	62.5	4.1	6.5
Emmert	(a)	58.	4.7	8.1
	(b)	62.5	5.2	8.3
O'Neill		57.	4.5	8.
Witter		51.	4.5	8.8
Onsrud		59.	4.	7.
Larson		63.	4.1	6.5
		Average 59.1		Average 7.48

C. Readings from a radio interview between Martin Codel and Senator Dill. (Intervals between questions and answers counted. Factual material.)

Bridges-Paust	69.	6.4	9.2
Crissey-Case	64.	4.6	7.2
Ziebarth-Helgesen	72.	4.7	6.5
Perrill-Myers	66.	5.7	8.6
Sievenpiper-Hutchings	53.	5.2	9.8
	Average 65.		Average 8.3

D. Readings from a radio sketch entitled "The Great American Family." (Four characters: father, mother, son, and daughter. Intervals between speeches counted.) Three readings given by each item.

Team I	(a)	54.	7.1	13.1
	(b)	56.	8.9	16.
	(c)	54.	6.3	11.6
Team II	(a)	49.	8.	16.3
	(b)	52.	6.5	12.5
	(c)	51.	9.3	18.2
		Average 53.		Average 14.6

BY WAY OF SUMMARY

Type	Av. Rate	Av. Index of Deviation
College Orations (radio not used)	48.	14.8
Radio Reading (Tarkington)	51.	10.3
Radio Lecture	59.1	7.5
Radio Interview	65.	8.3
Radio Sketch	53.	14.6

The average rate for each type of radio presentation is faster than the average for the college orators, and the amount of variation is correspondingly less. Members of the audience indicated that they listened with less fatigue to the interviews because of the changes from one speaker to another. This was especially true when the voices of the two speakers were markedly different.

All of this was preparatory to setting up an experiment that would measure the relation of rate and variation in rate of speaking to comprehension. We chose three of our best radio speakers, two men and one woman, and assigned to each of them an address used in the earlier experiments. They practiced reading the speeches until they were able to read them effectively at three distinctly different rates. The rapid rate was as fast as they could make it without fumbling and blurring the enunciation; the slow, as deliberate as possible while keeping up the flow of sound and sense; the medium was to represent their normal rates of speaking. Each speech was then given before three different audiences, according to the scheme shown in the following table.

TABLE SHOWING THE ORDER IN WHICH THE SPEECHES WERE GIVEN

Speaker	Rate for Audience I	Rate for Audience II	Rate for Audience III
Shaver	Slow	Medium	Fast
Mrs. Wirka	Medium	Fast	Slow
Campbell	Fast	Slow	Medium

The next table shows the average number of syllables per fifteen seconds, the average deviation, and the index of variation obtained by dividing the average deviation by the average. For instance, Mr. Shaver averaged 43.3 syllables per fifteen seconds when he read slowly. It took him eleven minutes to read the address. When he spoke rapidly he averaged 81 syllables per fifteen-second unit and he completed the reading in five minutes. If one is paying for broadcasting time over one of our large stations, the amount saved by having the address read at the rapid rate would be considerable.

TABLE SHOWS RATE AND VARIATION IN RATE

Speaker	Audience I	Audience II	Audience III
Shaver	(slow) Av. 43.3 A D 3.86 Index 9.	(medium) Av. 58.7 A D 6. Index 10.2	(fast) Av. 81. A D 6. Index 7.4
Mrs. Wirka	(medium) Av 57. A D 4.3 Index 7.5	(fast) Av 78. A D 4.5 Index 5 8	(slow) Av. 49.5 A D 3.8 Index 7.7
Campbell	(fast) Av. 64. A D 5.8 Index 9.	(slow) Av. 44. A D 4. Index 9.	(medium) Av. 55.5 A D 4.7 Index 8 5

After each speech the auditors were given ten minutes in which to take a completion test based on the factual material contained in the address. The percentage scores made by the audiences on six of the nine speeches are given in the following table.

TABLE SHOWING PERCENTAGE SCORES MADE BY AUDIENCE IN COMPLETION TESTS

Speaker	Audience I	Audience II	Audience III
Shaver	Slow 72.45	Medium 69.74	Fast 60.30
Mrs. Wirka	Medium	Fast (data not yet compiled)	Slow
Campbell	Fast 68.63	Slow 73.02	Medium 75.90

Shaver was most effective at his slow rate; Campbell, at his medium rate. Both were least effective when they were speaking as rapidly as possible. In each instance, however, the audience learned more facts per minute at the rapid rate, and the percentage scores

of some individuals were just as high. Perhaps the speed at which the speech was given necessitated greater concentration and aroused these listeners to their best efforts. It is, of course, obvious that, even when this study is completed, the results cannot be accepted as final, until the experiment has been repeated.

Throughout this paper, I have repeatedly made the point that these studies are exploratory rather than definitive. I believe, however, that the method used is essentially sound. Although I still think kindly of the informal style and the dramatization as means of instruction, I believe that the formal lecture is equally as effective when the listeners' interest has been aroused. I believe we have cast doubt on the assumption that the radio listener is of necessity handicapped because he cannot see the speaker. And I believe we have shown that the trained radio speaker, whether rightly or wrongly, tends to speak a bit more rapidly and with less variation in rate than when the audience is present before him.

AN OBJECTIVE STUDY OF THE SPEECHES OF WENDELL PHILLIPS

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THE subjective method of studying literary examples, whether poetry or prose, has been supplemented in recent years by the objective method. A sign of the times is Prof. Edith Rickert's book, published by the University of Chicago Press in 1927, called *New Methods for the Study of Literature*. This book stresses the fundamental importance of the word which is set down (in writing and in speaking) as the unit of study. In other words, language as the symbol of the thought and emotion of the writer or speaker is regarded as the ultimate subject for the study of literary models. Words are united into sentences, and the sentences into a unified composition. The word is the smallest unit, then the sentence, then the entire structure. To quote Prof. Rickert, " . . . . the foundation material for study is actually limited to the words as arranged and includes nothing more."[1]

[1]Edith Rickert: *New Methods for the Study of Literature*, p. 17.

Prof. John M. Manly of the University of Chicago, who wrote the Preface to Prof. Rickert's book, has this to say of the use of scientific methods in the study of models:

". . . . great writers have always known, and critics have slowly begun again to recognize, that stylistic effects are due, not to intangible music, but to the actual forms in which ideas are incorporated."[2]

"Style as a vital organism consequently is neither the arithmetical nor the algebraic sum of its parts. But in all the sciences of organic life analysis is a necessary preliminary and an indispensable aid to the understanding of the complete functioning of the organism as a whole. Certainly we shall never learn the secrets of style by merely mooning over them or by ejaculating admiration."[3]

What we have termed the "subjective method" is characterized by such excerpts as the following in regard to the oral style of the orator in question in this study, Wendell Phillips:

"Fluency and copiousness of diction."

"Direct and dignified."

"Surprises of thought and diction."

"His eloquence was penetrating and alarming."

"His style of oratory is peculiarly solemn and impressive . . . . It is calm, intense, and commanding."

"Exacting precision in style."

"Colloquial quality."

"Conversational style."

When we analyze such statements as the foregoing, we see the vagueness, the generality, and the extreme opinionatedness of such a judgment. What is intended may be figures of speech, epigrams, short sentences and words, analogies, illustrations, epithets, and the like. It may refer to a combination of these. Such statements give a subjective description of Wendell Phillips as an orator, but they prove nothing in themselves.

That the objective method of studying oratorical models is complete the present investigator, for one, does not claim. There are certain intangible elements in the audience, the occasion, and the speaker himself, which, for the present at least, defy objective treatment. For a more nearly complete picture of Wendell Phillips, a

[2] *Op. Cit.*, p. IX.
[3] *Ibid*, p. X-XI.

more nearly total picture of the orator, the man, and his relation to his times, this study taken in conjunction with another study made by the present writer, is recommended.[4] Both together will perhaps complete the picture, but the present study is interested only in the objective method as applied to the speeches of Wendell Phillips.

The present study is an attempt to apply the methods of Statistics to the analysis of oral style. Four items may be represented accurately:

1. Classification of Sentences.
2. Sentence-Length.
3. Word-Length.
4. Personal Pronouns.

An exposition of the methods used for the study of each of these items follows:

Sentences are classified according to Use, Structure and Artistry. These three divisions represent a dichotomy into Grammatical and Rhetorical. The classification of sentences according to Use and Structure is Grammatical; the classification according to Artistry is Rhetorical. These divisions were not secured from any rhetoric, for, of many rhetorics examined, there was none that attempted a complete classification. Practically all rhetorics name the various kinds of sentences, but they make no effort to make a comprehensive examination. No uniformity of terminology exists, and such terminology as does exist is hopelessly confusing and contradictory. It seemed advisable, however, to use some labeling for the various kinds of sentences, and upon the advice of Miss Charlotte Wood of the English department of the University of Wisconsin, the classification used in this study was adopted.

Grammatical		Rhetorical
According to Use	*According to Structure*	*According to Artistry*
Declarative	Simple	Loose
Interrogative	Compound	Periodic
Imperative	Complex	Balanced
Exclamatory	Compound-Complex	Very Simple

[4]Raymond H. Barnard: *A Study of the Control of Hostile Audiences in the Anti-Slavery Speeches of Wendell Phillips.* Master of Arts Thesis. Dept. of Speech. Univ. of Wis., 1929.

A declarative sentence asserts something as a fact. An interrogative sentence asks a question. An imperative sentence commands, requests, or exhorts. A simple sentence is one with one subject and one predicate. A complex sentence has one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A compound sentence uses two or more principal clauses. A compound-complex sentence has two or more principal clauses and one or more subordinate clauses. A loose sentence may be stopped at one or more points before its close and still keep the intent and meaning of the sentence. If it is grammatically complete before the end of the sentence, but does not carry the speaker's main meaning, it is not loose. A periodic sentence, on the other hand, suspends the thought until the close, even though the sentence is grammatically complete at a point within the sentence. A balanced sentence is one that is made up of parts similar in construction, of about equal length and importance, and usually antithetical in meaning. A "Very Simple" sentence, to use the words of Miss Borchers, its inventor, is one "with a simple subject and predicate and few modifiers."[5] This classification is not found in rhetorics, but is useful in describing those short sentences that are ordinarily called periodic.

For Classification of Sentence Percentages, the number of each kind of sentence was divided by the total number of sentences in the speech.

The sum of the words per sentence was divided by the total number of sentences for the speech to give the average sentence-length.

In Word-Length, the syllable was taken as the unit of measure; from one up. Word-Length Percentages were secured by dividing the total words of a given syllabic length by the total number of words for that speech.

For Personal Pronouns, two percentages were worked out. One was the ratio of total pronouns and pronouns of each person and number to the total words, and was computed by dividing the number of pronouns for a speech by the total number of words for the speech. The other proportion was a percentage gained by dividing the total number of each pronoun by the total number of pronouns for the speech.

[5]Gladys Louise Borchers: *A Study in Oral Style;* p. 33, Ph. D. Dissertation, Dept of Speech, Univ. of Wis., 1927.

In the speeches of Wendell Phillips, 35 speeches were selected from the two-volume collection of his speeches.[6] There are 52 in the two volumes, but 17 were eliminated because they did not suit the present study. The speeches were classified into seven audience-situations and equated on the basis, not of the number of speeches, but the number of words. The determining factor in this equating was the Audience-Situation that I have called *Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience*. There are five of these speeches, of approximately 30,000 words, on the subject of slavery delivered before mobs. A second group was on the subject of slavery, but before neutral or sympathetic audiences. I called this *Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile Audience*. The other five groups are: Public Question (on current topics besides that of slavery); Legislative (before committees of a legislature); Lectures; Pulpit (religious themes); and Tributes (funeral orations). The problem was to see how or whether Phillips made distinctions in the four items named above before the seven different types of audience.

To do this, the statistical method of the reliability of averages and differences was employed. This uses the Probable Error of the Difference, and is found from the mean. In each of the four items, each and every one of the seven audience-situations was compared with each other to see if real differences existed. A difference was regarded as certain if four or over (9965 cases in 10,000) or reliable if between 2.45 (9508 cases in 10,000) and 4.

The 35 speeches, arranged according to Audience-Situation, are:

1. *Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audiences*
   - The Murder of Lovejoy.
   - Surrender of Sims.
   - Mobs and Education.
   - Disunion.
   - Progress.
2. *Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile Audience*
   - The Right of Petition.
   - Public Opinion.
   - Cotton, the Cornerstone of Slavery.
   - The Boston Mob.
   - Irish Sympathy with the Abolition Movement.

[6]Wendell Phillips: *Speeches, Lectures, and Letters;* First and Second Series.

Kossuth.
Sims Anniversary.

3. *Public Question*
   Suffrage for Woman.
   The Eight-Hour Movement.
   The Labor Question.
   A Metropolitan Police.
   Under the Flag.
   The Cabinet.

4. *Legislative*
   Removal of Judge Loring.
   The Maine Liquor Law.
   Capital Punishment.

5. *Lectures*
   The Scholar in a Republic.
   Toussaint L'Ouverture.
   The Lost Arts.
   Daniel O'Connell.

6. *Pulpit*
   The Pulpit.
   Christianity a Battle, Not a Dream.
   The Bible and the Church.

7. *Tributes*
   Helen Eliza Garrison.
   Theodore Parker.
   Abraham Lincoln.
   Harriet Martineau.
   Burial of John Brown.
   William Lloyd Garrison.
   Francis Jackson.

RESULTS

Sentence-Length

1. There are two reliable differences in favor of shorter sentences when Phillips spoke before hostile audiences and three reliable differences for longer sentences before non-hostile audiences on the subject of slavery.

Classification of Sentences

1. Declarative sentences are used most in Lectures, and least in Legislative speeches; and, conversely, Interrogative sentences are used most in Legislative speeches and least in Lectures.

2. The differences found for Imperative sentences are so few as not to warrant a conclusion.

3. Exclamatory sentences are used most in Tributes and least in Lectures.

4. Simple sentences are used most in Tributes and least before non-hostile audiences on the subject of slavery.

5. Compound sentences are used the least in Public Question. The comparison for the most frequent use of the Compound sentence brought no reliable results.

6. Complex sentences are employed most in Pulpit speeches, and in Public Question the least, but the reliable comparisons are few.

7. Compound-Complex sentences are used most before Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile audiences, and used least in Tributes. The latter is the more certain.

8. The classification of sentences according to Artistry gives so few and so uncertain comparisons as not to warrant any conclusions.

Word-Length

1. Monosyllables are used most in Public Questions and least in Lectures.

2. Two-syllable words are used most in Lectures and least in Pulpit speeches.

3. No conclusions can be drawn for the use of words of more than two syllables.

Personal Pronouns

1. Personal pronouns are used most in speeches of Tribute; particularly is this true of third person singular.

2. Personal pronouns are used least in Legislative addresses.

3. Public Question uses the largest proportion of first person singular, and Lectures the least, but the largest percentage of personal pronouns of first person singular is found in Pulpit speeches, and the smallest in Tributes.

4. The largest percentage of pronouns of second person singular is found in Tributes, and the smallest percentage in Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience.

5. In Tributes the greatest proportion of third person singular to total words is found; also the largest percentage of total pronouns; and Lectures show the lowest ratio.

6. No definite conclusion can be drawn regarding the use of first person plural because of few comparisons. In Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience the ratio of first person plural to total words is highest; whereas in Lectures it is lowest. In Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile Audience the highest percentage of total pronouns is found and in Pulpit the lowest.

7. Public Question uses the highest ratio of second person plural, and Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience the lowest, whereas Legislative speeches use the highest percentage of total pronouns, and Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile Audience the lowest.

8. Not much conclusion can be drawn from third person plural because of few correlations, except that the pronoun is found least often in Tributes.

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Average Sentence-Length

Rhetoricians are almost unanimous in calling attention to the value of the short sentence in oral style and its importance in the forceful delivery of ideas.[7] What is important for oral style and for our study is that Wendell Phillips showed an average of 22.9805 words per sentence. When we consider the claims made for "conversational delivery" and the laurels bestowed upon Wendell Phillips, justly or otherwise, as the popularizer of that manner of speaking, and then reflect that in speaking before hostile audiences, Wendell Phillips used the shortest sentences of all, we may perhaps infer that there is some basis for reasoning that short sentences are an index to oral style.

It would not be well, however, to conclude too much from this study of Phillips' sentence-length because there is no certainty on any of the comparisons. No assertions about Legislative speeches can be made. The shortest sentence-length is found before Hostile audiences on the subject of slavery (21.152 words), but only two comparisons are reliable. Tributes are second shortest (21.4478 words) and Public Question third shortest (21.6335 words). The longest sentences are found before non-hostile audiences on the subject of slavery (25.636 words).

That Phillips uses shorter sentences before hostile audiences is

[7]For example, see Genung: *The Working Principles of Rhetoric*, p. 347; and Genung and Hanson: *Outlines of Composition and Rhetoric*, pp. 152-154.

RESULTS ARRANGED ACCORDING TO AUDIENCE-SITUATION

Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience	Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile Audience	Public Question	Legislative	Lectures	Pulpit	Tributes
			SENTENCE-LENGTH			
Shortest	Longest					Second Longest
			CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES			
Second in Simple sentences; Sixth in Compound-Complex sentences.	Simple sentences—least. Compound-Complex sentences—most.	Compound sentences—least.	Declarative sentences — least. Interrogative — most.	Declarative —most. Interrogative — least. Exclamatory least.		Simple — most. Compound-Complex—least. Exclamatory —most.
			WORD-LENGTH			
		Words of 1 syllable —most.		Words of 1 syllable—least. Words of 2 syllables — most.	Words of 2 syllables — least.	
			PERSONAL-PRONOUNS			
Second person singular—least. Second person plural —least.		Second person singular—most. Second person plural—most.	Total — least.	First person singular — least. First person plural — least.		Total — most. Second person singular —most. Third person singular —most. Third person plural — least.

interesting. One of the speeches for this group goes above the mean slightly (*Mobs and Education* 22.75 words) and the *Surrender of Sims* goes up to 28 words as an average, but the other three speeches in the group are low: *Progress*—17.83, *Murder of Lovejoy*—19.20, and *Disunion*—21.15. The first two of these three are among the lowest averages found in the 35 speeches studied.

Perhaps the reason that Phillips used shorter sentences before hostile audiences is that the need for repartee when heckled, the give-and-take of interruption, called for short, quick jabs and less formality. The purpose was to convince. On the other hand, when speaking before neutral or friendly audiences on slavery, he could use longer sentences because less hurried, and his purpose was to please or impress.

Classification of Sentences

Rhetoricians have offered many suggestions regarding the effect of different kinds of sentences. In general, it may be said that the Declarative sentence is used for affirmation; the Interrogative for audience-appeal; the Imperative for exhortation or challenge; the Exclamatory for strong emotion; the Simple for directness and clearness; the Compound for alternation and equality of statement; the Complex for subordination; the Compound-Complex for involvement of thought comprising co-ordination and subordination; the Loose for immediate statement of idea before further elaboration; the Periodic for suspension of thought; the Balanced for symmetry and contrast; and the Very Simple for conciseness, clearness and emphasis.

There is some doubt, however, among rhetoricians as to the value of classification according to Grammar, which involves the first eight kinds mentioned above, but they are fairly certain (in their own minds, at least) of the value of classification according to Rhetoric or Artistry: Loose, Periodic, Balanced, and Very Simple.[8]

The correlations for most of the sentences compared according to Artistry are low, and the results inconclusive. The percentages

[8]For discussion of the effects of sentences for rhetorical purposes, see for Loose: Genung; *The Working Principles of Rhetoric*, p. 351; and Genung and Hanson: *Outlines of Rhetoric*, p. 155-6; for Balanced: Genung, p. 309-10, p. 352-3, and Genung and Hanson, p. 157-8; for Periodic: Genung, p. 350-1, Genung and Hanson, p. 154-5.

of total sentences are: Loose, 46.3140 per cent; Periodic, 37.2763 per cent; Balanced, .1363 per cent; and Very Simple, 15.8706 per cent. Phillips depended largely upon the Loose and Periodic sentences rather than upon the Balanced and Very Simple.

Factors that somewhat invalidate the classification of sentences according to Artistry are the periodic elements occurring in Loose sentences and the balanced elements appearing in Periodic sentences. Strictly speaking, there are few pure Loose, Periodic, and Balanced sentences.

So much space has been devoted to the Balanced sentence in particular that it seems advisable to look at this for a moment. Most of the correlations were found to be low. For Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience, the lowest percentage for Balanced is found. What this indicates, it is hard to say. We might expect that in oral style the balanced sentence is too formal, studied, affected, and not spontaneous. So far this would be borne out by the correlation, but yet we know that Wendell Phillips prepared rather carefully for hostile audiences, and if the Balanced sentence is the product of forethought, why should it not appear in larger percentage than Balanced sentences for other situations?

The proportion of sentences classified according to use is: Declarative, 82.1603 per cent; Interrogative, 6.8300 per cent; Imperative, 5.1371 per cent; and Exclamatory, 5.8811 per cent. Phillips sacrifices the Declarative sentences somewhat in favor of Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory, which, of course, would lend greater variety and effect.

For classification of sentences according to Structure, the percentages are: Simple, 34.8743 per cent; Compound, 8.0889 per cent; Complex, 41.3817 per cent; and Compound-Complex, 15.7223 per cent. Phillips sacrifices some declarative sentences for the purpose of questions and exhortation or command.

Stormzand and O'Shea report[9] 38 per cent Simple sentences, Compound, 17.2 per cent; and Complex 44.8 per cent (which, in our study, includes both Complex and Compound-Complex). There is fair agreement with Phillips' 35 per cent for Simple sentences, but they find 9 per cent more Compound sentences and 18 per cent fewer Complex sentences. Phillips, apparently, discards the Compound

[9] *How Much English Grammar?* p. 21.

sentence involving balance for the more complex structure of higher thought integrations and extemporized delivery.

The largest percentage of Declarative sentences is found in Lectures, and the smallest in Legislative; whereas the largest percentage of Interrogative sentences is found in Legislative speeches and the smallest in Lectures. This may be due to the position of the lecturer and the pleader before legislative committees. The lecturer speaks as one with authority and can assert dogmatically. The pleader before legislative committees is likely to be less dogmatic and more conciliatory, and will ask questions.

Exclamatory sentences are the expression of emotion. It is interesting to observe then that Phillips uses the highest percentage of Exclamatory sentences in Tributes. Evidently a tribute at the death of a friend moved Phillips more deeply than any of the other six situations. Phillips uses the lowest percentage of Exclamatory sentences before an Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile audience.

Phillips uses the largest percentage of Simple sentences in Tributes, and the lowest percentage in Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile audience situations. It may be generally true that simple sentences are used more in Tributes. An interesting corollary of this is that the lowest percentage of Compound-Complex is found in Tributes, which would seem to verify the use of Simple sentences for Tributes, and the highest percentage in Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile.

In connection with the use of Simple and Compound-Complex sentences, it is interesting to observe the relation between these kinds of sentences and the average sentence length. Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience, which shows the shortest sentence length of the seven situations, stands second in frequency of Simple sentences, and next to last in frequency of Compound-Complex sentences. Anti-Slavery, Non-Hostile Audience, in which the largest sentence length is found, has the lowest percentage of Simple sentences and the highest percentage of Compound-Complex sentences. Tributes, second shortest in sentence length, has the most Simple sentences and the least Compound-Complex. This is rather strong evidence that Simple sentences and short sentences go together, and that Compound-Complex sentences tend to be long. This would seem to be a perfectly obvious supposition, yet one is glad to find experimental support for it.

Complex sentences are found in largest proportion for Pulpit

speeches and in lowest proportion for Public Question. The former is formal; the latter, informal, which may account for the difference.

Word-Length

The proportion of monosyllables and of 2- and 3- syllable words in Wendell Phillips' speeches is large. (1 syllable—70.8283 per cent; 2 syllables—18.6854 per cent; 3 syllables—7.1786 per cent). It is probaby true that for any speaker the proportion of monosyllables would be large. Parts of speech necessary for coherence, such as prepositions and articles, affect the result. Many longer words, such as special technical terms, proper names, and the like, make some of the 4-, 5-, and 6-syllable words inevitable, likewise, and do not indicate a speaker's particular preference for sesquipedalian words.

Rickert believes that there is a relation between length and style quite apart from the rhythmic effects which they produce. The purpose of monosyllables, she states, is to give "force and curtness"; of polysyllables, "weight and emphasis of another kind."

The comparisons for anything beyond 2 syllables show so few differences that no conclusions can be drawn. Public Question used monosyllables the most and Lectures the least. The first occasion was informal, the second formal, and so this difference is perfectly logical. For 2-syllable words, Lectures used the most and Pulpit the least.

It is significant that of the real differences found, assertions can be made concerning those used the most—the 1- and 2-syllable words.

Personal Pronouns

Wendell Phillips uses the largest ratio of third person singular pronouns to total words, and the smallest ratio of second person singular pronouns to total words. He uses first person plural, first person singular, and third person plural less than third person singular, but quite frequently. The ratio to total words is considered here rather than the percentage of total pronouns because it is more accurate and significant.

Phillips employed an overwhelming proportion of personal pronouns in speeches of Tribute, both in ratio to total words and in percentage of total pronouns. Tributes stands first in second person singular and third person singular both in ratio and percentage, but is used the least in third person plural. The first person singular,

likewise, is used least in Tributes. He does not refer to himself because the first person singular is lowest in percentage.

Lectures uses first person singular and third person singular the least. Evidently the lecture as a type does not call for "I" or "He", at least in Wendell Phillips' speaking. Public Question uses first person singular and second person plural the most; this is apparent for a popular audience.

"We" and "You" plural have been considered by many speech teachers as being the personal contact pronouns, yet there are few comparisons here. Quite evidently, Phillips makes few distinctions for these pronouns. Before hostile audiences, where one might expect the most "You" plural, there is the lowest ratio to total words.

Anti-Slavery, Hostile Audience uses both second person singular and second person plural the least, which is interesting. Phillips, when faced with mobs, does not condescend to flatter them by addressing them as "You" or by referring to a single individual as "You".

The third person plural offers no conclusions, as there are few comparisons.

How the Study May Be Carried Further

The present study is incomplete in several respects, particularly in variety as applied to sentence-length, word-length, and classification of sentences. Some variety in these items is indicated by the total mean deviations. The sentence-length can be studied by taking the deviations for each sentence and finding the mean deviations for each speech. In word-length, the number of changes from one to two syllable words, etc., can be indicated for each sentence, or the total area can be indicated by taking the total of the number of syllables for each sentence, or the number of syllables for each 100 words. Whether a study of variety for classification of sentences in a like manner would be profitable, is an open question. It has not been done.

A further study from the data of this study may be made by comparing each speech of a given situation with every other speech of that situation, or by taking the two speeches of a given speech-situation, that show the greatest reliable difference for an item to see if it is the situation that shows the difference or the speeches within the situation. That is, do the individual speeches differ as much among themselves as the speech-situation—is every speech a problem in itself or is it the situation that is the problem?

PROLEGOMENA TO ARGUMENTATION

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PART IV. AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF ARGUMENTATION.*

AFTER a decade and a half of the revolt against the standard tradition in argumentation, we teachers of the old discipline find ourselves in the position suggested by the ancient French paradox which tells us that "when we are rich we are poor". We have never been richer in ideas about our subject than we are now, but we have never been poorer in ability to agree on the proper appraisal of those ideas. We are thus in a vexatious predicament from which we cannot easily deliver ourselves. The following pages represent an attempt at a solution of this difficulty.

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

But, what method of research shall we employ in our attempt to get out of this predicament? Shall we simply turn away from everything that is new, and devise arguments in defense of the old tradition? Shall we adopt those ideas which carry with them a clear and ready cogency, and reject all others? Shall we select one or more of the modern approaches to the subject and follow only the particular logical implications there suggested? Or shall we seek out some new and as yet untried way of dealing with our problems?

Whenever an investigator in any field of thought finds himself in circumstances such as beset us, he is most likely to back away strategically from the confusing mass of accumulated ideas and turn his attention directly upon the phenomena to which those ideas are supposed to refer. Such a procedure is neither strange nor unusual. Considered from the point of view of traditional logic it means a turning from a dominantly deductive method of thought to a dominantly inductive one. Considered from the point of view of science it means a turning from reasoning alone to the sources of the data of thought. And considered from the point of view of the Deweyan "stages of reflection" it means a turning from the strictly logical stage of thought back to the analytical or diagnostic one. The peculiar

*This is the last of a series of four articles on the general topic presented above. The first three appeared in the current volume of this *Journal*.

virtue of this procedure is not far to seek. It lies in the fact that it brings the thinker face to face with the realities which constitute the objective reference of his ideas, and does not at the start demand that he either espouse or reject any particular idea already in his possession.

This is a procedure which we have chosen to make an important part of our method in this the last phase of our inquiry. In its general outline the method consists in taking one problem at a time, bringing it within view of the phenomena of argumentation as they actually occur in experience, and studying it in the light of the history of argumentative theory, of the criticisms which have been levelled at that theory, and of our knowledge of logic, psychology and other sciences. In giving our method the general designation of "empirical analysis" we have had in mind simply that logical usage which applies the term "empirical" to all such ways of pursuing knowledge as depend on the observation of phenomena.

In the first chapter of this study we made a semi-casual distinction between the *science* of argumentation and the *discipline* of argumentation. This is a distinction of which we need to remind ourselves before proceeding with our inquiry. Some of the questions with which we shall have to deal will be seen to have reference to the discipline of argumentation rather than to the science of the subject. To some extent, then, we shall have to keep the science and the discipline apart, and write, in so far as it is sound to do so, of the science primarily.

The Differential Character of Argumentative Situations

As a preliminary to this inquiry we have developed a descriptive catalogue of many types of argumentative situations. We have used this catalogue as a collection of the basic data of our thought. From it we have derived impressions concerning the nature of argumentation, and to it we have constantly referred in our thinking.

One of the most significant inferences which this catalogue forces upon the mind is the idea that while all of us have in recent years exploited the fact that argumentative situations may differ from one another, we have not exploited that fact adequately. We have emphasized this fact, mainly, to give force to the principle that the speaker should be taught to give proper consideration to the factor of the audience as well as to the factor of the subject of his speech. The consequence has been that we have emphasized the differences

which may exist between the settings of arguments and between audiences, but have practically ignored the fact that argument may perform not one but many functions. And this fact stands out rather prominently in the descriptions entered in the catalogue.

In order that the reader may obtain at least a suggestion of what the descriptions of argumentative situations set forth we shall transfer a number of items from the catalogue to these pages.

"One of the commonest causes of the appearance of argument among us is the need of making new decisions. Situations where such need occurs make argument all but inevitable. If the need is presented to a person individually and privately, and he keeps his own counsel, he soon sees several sides to a question and argues with himself. If he confides in or seeks the aid of others, or if the question is initially of concern to a group, discussion and argument are sure to follow.

"Such events happen in our lives frequently. In the pursuit of our ordinary affairs we may experience them daily. We are obliged to decide about needed purchases, about plays we wish to attend, about the causes we are asked to support, about the trips we plan to take. And we have to argue about these matters as an aid to our decisions. In affairs of a public nature, such as elections, we go through similar experiences. Here, however, our possible decisions are discussed for us and by us in newspapers and periodicals and from platforms; and we witness and participate in campaigns which may be dramatic in their interest.

"That our homes are very frequently the scenes of argument which springs from the problem of decision, we all know. Even in the family which is habitually extremely harmonious shared questions and problems become argued questions and problems. A case arises, let us say, where a son is ready to enter college. Here the problem may be the one of choosing the most suitable institution. That problem may become a question of the college in the home town as against the college away from home. It may become a question of the small college as against the large university. Or it may become a question of loyalty to a family tradition. The decision cannot be made easily because the attitudes and ideas of the participants in the discussion represent appeals and values various enough to lend support to several contradictory choices.

"Here argument functions as a means of clearing the way for a reaction by developing the dominant appeal which may be latent in

our relation to a set of conditions and values. It seldom does purely that, however, for into such situations there obtrude themselves the prejudices and feelings of the participants, their proselyting impulses, their wills to dominate, their interest in self-expression, their urge to exhibitionism, and other possible drives. Thus to preserve the integrity of personal preference, to satisfy the will to influence others, and to enjoy the fruits of self-expression usually become added motives in the discussion.

"This egoism may, moreover, carry people to unpleasant extremes. Here much depends on the temperaments of the members of the group. The arguers may become so emotional in the expression and furtherance of their attitudes and points of view that they may change the essential nature of the situation. Under the pressure of the emotionalized will to win they may go so far as to abandon their original concern over the merits or appeals of their choices and give their energies to the cause of impulsive contentiousness. In the best sense of the term such behavior no longer deserves the name of argument but rather some other designation. English-speaking people have with instinctive discrimination invented for it the terms 'quarrel' and 'altercation'."

"Arguments are sure to be generated by the introduction of any new elements into society. This is as true with reference to the common affairs of our daily life as it is with reference to matters of momentous public concern. Most of us can readily think of scores of examples of this kind, and see in imagination how people make contrary conjectures as to the probable effect of a particular new force upon society. Some welcome the new force, and others dread, condemn, and fight it. Thus new fashions in dress occasion argument. A new music, like Jazz, evokes conflicting opinions. And every new invention, whether in the realm of mechanics, social behavior, or ideas, comes to be variously appraised. History is replete with occurrences and movements illustrative of this type of human experience in spheres of wide public concern. But whether the new element is of trifling importance or of momentous human concern alters little the function of argument in this kind of situation, for it serves here always as a process of appraisal and as a weapon of defense or attack."

"Arguments arise between people, or in the contemplations of individual minds, in the presence of experiences with ambiguous meanings. Here we are close to the field of our inquiring intelli-

gence. To that intelligence the world of things and events speaks with many voices. To it every fact seems to suggest several meanings and not just one. How many thousands of times have people paused over such a phenomenon as that of a 'wayward' son who springs from a 'good' family. Shouldn't a 'good' family give the world a 'good' son? There is a certain logic that demands it. But why does the principle fail in many particular cases? One of us answers that the reason lies in heredity, that the son harks back to some vicious strain in his ancestry. Another answers that the cause is to be found in the social environment, that the son has lived under pernicious influences. Another urges that the effect is traceable to disease. Another says the fault lies in the young man's training. And another still, sets forth the view, somewhat cynically, perhaps, that the parents may not be so good as they seem. The fact may mean so many things that the division of opinion is wholly natural. But whether as interested seekers for knowledge or simply through more or less idle curiosity, or as advocates of a specific point of view, we refuse to let the problem rest undiscussed. And so we inquire and argue. We argue in centers of research and learning, in our homes, in conventions, in pulpits, and in journals. And this is true with reference to thousands of problems for which people have many different solutions."

"That arguments are the accompaniment of every inquiry the history of philosophy and science makes easily evident. Argument cannot be absent even from the laboratory where observation of phenomena constitutes the main ground for inference. Why is this so? Because the processes of reflection are in a large measure the processes of argument. The two are in fact so much of a piece that mankind has been accustomed to using the terms 'argument' and 'reasoning' synonymously. It matters little whether the process goes on entirely within the brain of an expert, or whether it is identifiable as communication. A measure of real identity must always exist between processes which consist so much of the logical testing of ideas."

"Argument is usually present in activities we call propaganda. Used in the larger sense which makes it cover any propagation of schemes or ideas, whether in a manner aboveboard or insidious and even sinister, the term 'propaganda' calls up images of men in all spheres of human interest, attempting through spoken and written appeals to mould the opinions and wills of people to their mind's desire. It calls up the seer Amos ranting against the irresponsible lux-

uries of the large city. It calls up the deformed Paul of the first century of our era spreading his newly-adopted religion among the Greeks and Romans. It calls up the reformer Wendell Phillips shocking the minds of thousands into viewing the institution of slavery as a moral wrong. It calls up the modern Woodrow Wilson striving to make his nation adopt the League of Nations. It calls up the publicity staffs of all the governments involved in the World War making their people see their enemy in a hate-provoking light. It calls up the 'public relations' guides of our business corporations attempting to win and shape the public will. It calls up politicians and statesmen seeking by innumerable methods to secure our votes. And it calls up salesmen of every kind contriving to turn us as prospects into active buyers. These, too, are argumentative situations. In all of them the main function of argument is to influence the thoughts and attitudes and actions of other people. They vary greatly in their dignity, both ethical and cultural, but in the one fundamental they are in the same class."

"Still another type of argumentative situation is that where argument arises from the clash of personalities or their desires and interests. Here argument may be a tool or a weapon according to the degree in which reasonableness is present as the arbitrator of the dispute."

"Frequently conflicts between people result in very formal argumentative situations such as are exemplfied in cases at law. Here official deliberation and order govern. Here trained men oppose each other as representatives of the principals to the contest. Here long periods of preparation sometimes produce argumentative speeches which because of their qualities of intelligence and art find a permanent place in the literature of a nation."

"Finally, let us take notice of those argumentative situations in which argument is not so much a part of the business of life as it is of our more detached interests. In this class may be included the formal debate contests between our colleges and schools, and instances of those casual and informal arguments in which pleasure and self-expression serve as important motivations.

"In formal debate contests between colleges and schools argument is often treated as a device for sport, in the same way in which chessmen figure in chess. Intellectual concern over the question discussed, in so far as it is present, is thus subsidiary to the principle of sport. In many colleges effort is being made to treat the argument

in the primary sense of serious discussion, but such attempts are making headway with considerable slowness. In many instances the principle of sport is itself modified under the pressure of the motive of entertainment.

"Sitting in a Pullman lounge not long ago the author overheard a conversation between two men who happened to be residents of rival cities. They were reasonable men, and good natured. Each showed occasional amusement at his own statements. But for several hours they exchanged arguments about the merits of the two cities, which did credit both to their loyalties and to their culture. Occasionally they analyzed their facts and opinions with surpassing insight and skill, and then turned suddenly to humor in good natured banter. They were in an argumentative situation which was essentially play, and they carried on that play in a most excellent manner. They did what we all love to do when we can afford to be idle in our clubs, at our firesides, in smokers, and in lobbies.

"But, what does argument accomplish in situations of this kind? Evidently it can play here a plural role. It may be a means of intellectual stimulation and enjoyment. It may, as does ordinary conversation, serve as an expression of good will. It may be the means of giving men some light which they seek. It may merely amuse. And it may serve as an opportunity for the exhibitionism and domination which the egoes of all men are prone to crave."

It is quite evident from this list of examples that we must think of argument in no select terms. It is not something that we can associate exclusively with quarrels, or with sophistry, or with salesmanship, or with the sport of debate, or with courts of law, or with political and reform campaigns. Argument is a part of the real business of living. It serves us in our daily tasks, in our perplexities, in our disputes, in our search for truth, and in the promotion of our interests. It enters into our education, into our sports, into our contemplations, and into our recreations. It is a universal technique for threshing out conflicts between persons, attitudes, interests, policies, theories and ideas generally. It is a means in the adjustment of our concerns and affairs. It is an important substance in our ability to see the worth of ideas and in our capacity for presenting to the world the causes which lie near our hearts. It employs methods of many kinds and appears in forms which differ widely in character. In any study of it we need to keep constantly conscious of this diversity of its function and manifestations.

The Restriction of Our Data

In the catalogue from which we have been quoting we have included argumentative situations which represent *argument in inquiry* rather than *argument in discourse*. We have done this in order that we might see argumentation in all its relationships. We have not permitted ourselves to forget, however, that the subject of our investigation is *argumentation in discourse*.

The Problem of An Argumentative Pattern

It will be recalled by the reader who has followed the present inquiry from its beginning that Dean Yost and Professor Woolbert present in their articles what might be called standard patterns of argumentative situations. In Miss Yost's writing we find the select portrait of an arguer who is in the act of winning an audience consisting of members of a specific social group to his program for meeting a particular need of that group. In Professor Woolbert's articles the pattern is less specific and less definite. Its most outstanding feature lies in the fact that the arguer, whether he is speaking or writing, is conscious for the most part of one thing only, and that is that his business is to secure from his audience the reaction which he desires. Can we, as we contemplate our basic data, formulate a standard pattern of the argumentative situation and use that as a basis for our theorizing?

The only possible answer to this question is that we can not. Argumentative situations vary so much and so importantly that the preliminary selection of a single pattern could only lead our thinking astray.

The Problem of the Fundamental Approach to Our Subject

One of the most important questions which Dean Yost and Professor Woolbert raise in their articles is the question of the right fundamental approach to our subject. Miss Yost claims that our standard texts approach argumentation from the point of view of logic, and suggests that studying the subject from the point of view of sociology would bring better results. Professor Woolbert, on the other hand, presents a strong case for the adoption of the point of view of psychology, contending that our subject falls within the scope of the science of mental processes. Toward both of these suggestions we have assumed the attitude of doubt. The question is before us anew, therefore, as a part of this empirical inquiry.

Clearly, we are dealing here with phenomena which can be approached from several points of view. Most subjects of inquiry can. Our first question, therefore, is: Is there any one science which can cover the whole ground? And to this question our answer can be none other than a negative one. The reader who will at this point recall that some psychologists and logicians fail to see in logic a subject separate from psychology, may object that this answer is too dogmatic. To which objection we need only to reply that the fiasco of Woolbert's attempt to adopt a straight logical psychologism is evidence of the fallacy of such a psychologism, and that, anyhow, there are elements in the processes of argument which at least in part outside both logical and psychological categories.

The second question, then, is whether some one science could not be regarded as fundamental to our subject in the sense that it could discover or furnish all the *major principles* of argumentation. Miss Yost suggests in her article that sociology might be able to serve in this role. But we have discovered that this supposition is false. Professor Woolbert claims in his essays that psychology can perform this function. But we have not accepted Professor Woolbert's evidence for the claim, and we have had opportunity to observe how poor were the results of his application of this hypothesis. Psychology, we have seen, must either ignore many factors in argumentation or distort them. Then, what about logic? Can it furnish the major principles of argumentation? There is no doubt that there are kinds of argument in which there is little else than logical material. This is true with reference to much philosophical and scientific discussion. But this is not true of most cases of argument. Hence, even logic fails to qualify for the role in question.

But, could not some one science be regarded as fundamental to our subject in the sense that it could provide a guiding point of view? Viewed in this manner such a science would not be expected to provide even a major portion of the principles of argumentation but would be expected to provide the main focus or perspective for the arguer's work. Let us examine the soundness of this suggestion.

If we should try to use sociology in this manner the result would be that the focus of our attention in relation to argumentation would rest on the social settings of arguments. We would be interested in the specific role of each argument in its particular situation, in the general character of each argument, and in the social results of each argument. Our argumentation would gain something from this pro-

cedure, but it would also lose something. It would gain in perspective, just as any human activity would thus gain in perspective, but it would lose in quality, for our attention would not be on argumentation itself but on the conditions of argumentation.

If we should try to use logic in this manner the result would be that the focus of our attention would rest on the real or alleged truth-merits of argued subjects. We would thus be interested primarily in the evidence relating to argumentative propositions. Traditionally we have leaned much in this direction. We have favored this attitude very largely because of the belief that what is convincing in inquiry is also convincing in communication. But present-day rhetoricians find much to criticise in this procedure. It tends, they say, to the one-sided over-shadowing of non-logical values. Even Aristotle, with all his devotion to the logical element in rhetoric, they point out, found good reasons for giving full recognition in his system to non-logical appeals. In so far, therefore, as any one-sidedness is likely to result we dare not regard the special point of view of logic as a desirable general guide for our subject as a whole.

But what if we should try to use psychology in this manner? The result would be that the focus of our attention would rest on the effects which argument produces on readers or hearers. We would thus be interested primarily in the capacity of the speaker's effort for evoking desired responses in people. The tendency of present-day rhetoric seems to be in precisely this direction. Indeed, there is a marked disposition within our own profession to call those of us who take a stand with psychology "modern" and the rest of us "classical" or "traditional". One earmark of this "modern" attitude appears to be the tendency to use the phrase "influencing human behavior" in relation to speech activity. An almost irrefutable argument in its favor is to be found in Woolbert's statement that "surely no writer or speaker ever aims at an effect that is effectless."

That this tendency to define the tasks of argumentation in terms of psychology has been of great positive value to the teaching of our subject there can be very little doubt. It has given the speaker a firmer grasp of the meaning of effectiveness in speaking. And yet, a contemplation of the various types of argumentative situations listed above, together with other considerations relating to the subject of speaking, suggests that it would be an error to give the tendency unqualified approval. First, there is the fact that in a great deal of argumentation the exploration of a subject is of more importance

than the seeking of effects on people. Such argumentation may be very closely synonymous with audible inquiry. So long as such an inquiry is argument *in discourse* some consideration of the hearer is sure to be present, but it is of secondary importance. Second, there is the fact that much argumentation centers in the solving of problems, in which process the synthesis of available evidence is of primary consideration. Here the convincing of an audience may be of great importance but that this conviction be based on reliable knowledge is of greater importance still. Third, there is the fact that some of the most successful argumentative speaking which we hear is carried on by speakers who are completely devoid of concern about their hearers. Many speakers prepare their speeches with the conviction that what impresses them in their own studies of their subjects will also impress their hearers. And as often as not they are right. Men have many attitudes and experiences in common, and what appeals to one of us may appeal to thousands. Fourth, there is the fact that in the work of the speaker there operates the principle of double reference, the reference to the subject discussed, and the reference to the hearer, and that every subject makes some claims upon the speaker on its own account, and cannot be treated only in its relation to the audience. Fifth, there is the fact that in the actual work of the speaker there is likely to take place a dynamic shifting of the attention from the subject to the audience and back again, the speaker alternating his function between that of the speaker and that of inquirer through very subtle psychological change. Sometimes such a speaker "loses himself" in his subject and at that moment achieves his greatest impressiveness. Sixth, there is the fact that we feel a fundamental dislike for a speaker in whose consciousness the psychology of influencing our behavior holds an evident place. And seventh, there is the fact that the function of speech is not merely that of communication, whatever our theory of its origin and of its relation to thought may be. Speech is one of the important media through which we relate ourselves to the world and the world to ourselves. It is one of the media which releases and multiplies the powers of our nature. It is a medium through which we can articulate, isolate, handle, examine, break up and elaborate the various phases of our experience. It is a medium whereby we can experiment with life and make adjustments in it, as if in blue prints, without directly attempting the serious business of changing it in reality. It is the medium through which our thoughts become em-

pirically real. The role of speech even in communication is not simply that of stimulus, it is also that of response. No conclusion as to the dominant function of argument can be drawn from what we know of the nature of speech. It would seem, therefore, that while very often the arguer must have uppermost in his mind the effect which he wishes to produce on his audience, this is not true with regard to all argumentative situations, and it is not true in equal degree with regard to the situations to which the principle applies. Hence, we must conclude that while the psychological point of view should be employed as one of the guides in argumentation, it should not be employed as universally the dominating motivator of the subject. Woolbert's statement is, therefore, not irrefutable. It is, as a matter of fact, largely irrelevant, for the question is not *whether* the speaker should be concerned over the effects of his speaking but *when* and *how* he should be concerned over those effects.

The general conclusion is forced upon us, therefore, that the claim that any one science can be fundamental to our subject cannot be sustained.

The Problem of the Conviction-Persuasion Duality

The most important problem in this inquiry is without doubt the problem of the *conviction-persuasion duality*. Traditionally this duality has been accepted as valid and valuable without question. In recent years, however, its validity and usefulness have been questioned so seriously that some writers on argumentation have included it in their works with apology and others have left it wholly out of consideration. At this time the problem is not yet settled.

There are three questions to which we must find answers if we are to come to a definite conclusion regarding this matter. They are: (1) What is the proper definition of the concepts of conviction and persuasion when found in this dual relationship? (2) Have the concepts as so defined any scientific validity? (3) If they do have scientific validity what is their place in a system of argumentation?

Aristotle did his work toward the end of the era which gave birth to logic—the first set of practical devices used by man for controlling his own thoughts in such a way as to arrive at objectively valid ideas. Theretofore men thought their own thoughts, and when they differed with others in their opinions they found no way of resolving their differences by puting their ideas to some commonly accepted tests. With the coming of logic these tests were broughf into being, and men learned for the first time to make rigid the dis-

tinction between thinking that travels a course of rigorous knowledge-achieving activity, and thinking that springs from or is influenced by human impulses, feelings, and attitudes.[1] The logic they thus developed was for these ancients the way to the solution of problems—the way to truth; and they respected it as we of to-day respect the methods of science.

Aristotle felt all this even more strongly than did his contemporaries, for it was he who established this logic. He saw in the laws of this new science not just a catalogue of checks on the consistency of thought but a universal methodology, applicable wherever reliability of ideas and cogency of reasoning were sought. He saw in this science the *basis for a common ground for the thoughts and discussions of men.* He saw in it a guide to the objectivity in thinking which brings men of varying opinions together. When, therefore, he came to the task of writing his *Rhetoric* he divided the "means of persuasion" according to the standard set by logic, placing on one side the elements which have to do with rigorous logical truth-seeking, and on the other side the elements which have to do with the shaping of the attitudes of hearers.

In this dichotomizing of the means of persuasion we have Aristotle's version of the duality we know as *conviction* and *persuasion* or as the *appeal to reason* and the *appeal to feelings.* The two versions are clearly, not wholly identical. The modern version is stated in psychological terms, and is usually understood to be a psychologically-arrived-at dichotomy. This is not the case with Aristotle's conception of the matter. He approached rhetoric from the point of view of the speaker's function considered in relation to its larger place and significance in the affairs of men. He derived his distinction between the two means as a philosopher-scientist who counted all the significant values which are at stake in the work of orators. And so instead of speaking of "conviction" or of "appeal to reason" he spoke of *dealing with the objective truth-establishing elements of a case, as against endeavoring to produce certain attitudes in hearers through appeals to their pre-dispositions, interests, and feelings.* It

[1]The Greeks believed that this logic represented a final type of control for thought. The subsequent course of western intelligence, with its development of modern inductive methods and of devices for experimental analysis and verification, has, however, supplemented these formal logical controls very extensively.

is true that his term "appeal to the passions" has a distinctly psychological character, but in Aristotle's mind even this concept derived much of its significance for rhetoric from its relation to logical values.

But couldn't Aristotle have defined his duality in terms of psychology had he thought of doing so? Let us see if that would have been possible: The Aristotelian psychology represents a very reasonable functionalism. It sets forth a satisfactorily organic view of the human personality and its capacities. It distinguishes between some of the functions of the personality so strongly, however, that it appears to superimpose upon its functionalism a fairly definite "faculty" psychology which sets the higher reason of man somewhat apart from his other mental powers. It thus combines in one system the features of an organic functionalism with the features of a facultative pluralism—a result frequently met with in psychological systems to this day. What would have happened, then, had Aristotle sought to define his duality in terms of this psychology? His main obligation would have been to look for some sort of a natural duality in the responses or the psychological mechanisms of the personality, which would correspond to the duality he had already formulated in terms of the processes and standards of logic. That is to say, he would have had to look for the definite psychological correlates of the two general "means" of persuasion. And had he done so he would have found that duality where rhetoricians have usually found it: in the distinction between reasoning and feeling. But Aristotle was fortunate in not being forced to get his knowledge of the human personality from books. Besides, he was not a superficial observer. There is no doubt, therefore, that he would have seen that reason may be active in complete obedience to the feelings, and that feelings may be aroused by rigorously logical demonstrations of ideas. There is no doubt that he would have seen that howsoever distinct our mental powers may appear to be theoretically, they are annoyingly not so distinct in actual practical experience. Or, to put it in still other words, there is no doubt that he would have seen that there does not always exist or occur an item for item correspondence between the speaker's matter, the supposed appeal values of that matter, and the reactions of the hearer to that matter. The attempt, then, to define this duality in direct psychological terms would have ended disappointingly. Now, if Aristotle's attempt to find a correlate for his duality in a psychological distinction between reasoning and feeling would have failed,

how can we account for the fact that practically every rhetorician from Campbell down has adhered to the psychological approach to the matter? Why is it, in other words, that our modern rhetoricians have always seen a duality where no such duality appears to exist?[2] The answer to this question is not a simple one. In the main, however, it lies in the facts that a definite duality of some sort has here a real foundation in fact, that this duality does have relation to our common distinction between reasoning and feeling, and that while our rhetoricians may have wandered astray in basing their duality on psychology, they have wandered at least very near the precincts of truth.

If, then, some sort of a relevant duality does have a foundation in fact, and if the basis of that duality cannot be found in psychology, then the only duality which can claim our attention is the Aristotelian duality. Let us see, therefore, whether or not this duality is tenable.

Aristotle defined his duality in terms of the distinction between "logical demonstrations of propositions" and "appeals to passions". Had he lived in our own time he would have conceived of that definition in conformity with our conception of the scope of logic and with our knowledge of matters psychological; but he would not have changed the definition in any essential. Thus his conception of logic would have been broad enough to include all knowledge-establishing processes instead of chiefly the consistency-validating processes which are the main concern of formal logic; but this would not have necessitated a change in the main foundation of the duality. We may quite properly surmise that were Aristotle our contemporary he would define the duality as embracing on the one hand, the elements which are used because of their real or supposed knowledge-establishing character, and on the other hand, the elements which are used because of their attitude-establishing character.[3]

But the question is, has this conception of the duality real scien-

[2]Of all the modern rhetoricians whose works fall in the period between Campbell and the rise of psychological monism Professor C. S. Baldwin has probably exhibited the most capacity for looking beyond psychology to psychological facts in this respect. See his "A College Manual of Rhetoric," dated 1902.

[3]The author recognizes the shortcoming of the term "attitude-establishing". It seems not to include enough. However, for want of a better term he has chosen to use it heuristically as embracing all elements used for their persuasion-values, in the restricted sense of the term "persuasion".

tific validity? To answer this question adequately we must find replies to four other questions which are subsidiary to it. These questions are: (1) Isn't this duality simply identical with our common distinction between reasoning and feeling? (2) Isn't this duality based on distinctions which apply to inquiry rather than to communications? (3) Does this duality meet the requirements of modern psychology? (4) Is the distinction expressed in the duality sufficiently clear-cut to be valid and valuable?

The Aristotelian duality is not simply identical with our common distinction between reasoning and feeling. This point will never be understood, however, so long as we tend to identify logical processes with a psychological account of thought. Logic has to do not simply with the laws of thought but with the knowledge-establishing processes have to do with checks, standards, indices, devices for analysis and synthesis, and methods for ascertaining the presence or absence of consistency between ideas. And these are not wholly inner native processes of reasoning; they are in part inventions, achievements, devices, and rules which we incorporate into our thinking. There is a partial objectivity in logical processes which places them in part outside the scope of mere reasoning. Moreover, reasoning may play a non-logical role as well as a logical one. The fact that reasoning is going on in the mind does not justify the judgment that a logical process is necessarily going on. This is so elementary that we blush for even setting it down, but it is not rendered less important by its familiarity.

The objection that the Aristotelian duality appears to apply to inquiry rather than to communication is a very vital one. Fortunately, it is not difficult to answer. It can be freely admitted that the duality does refer basically to the knowledge-establishing processes of thought. But these knowledge-establishing processes of thought have something very definite and important in common with the operation of thought in communication. The Deweyan analysis of thought into its distinguishable phases throws the needed light on this matter. According to this analysis the thinker begins with a problem. If the problem is a complex one he finds it necessary to diagnose, or analyze the problem in order to get at its true nature. This diagnosis over, he engages in a search for suggestions of a solution. He may find only one immediately plausible suggestion or he may find several. He calls each plausible suggestion a hypothesis, and proceeds to find

the facts and ideas and reasonings which either support or undermine the tentatively adopted solution. This process of supporting or undermining may go on over a long period of time without ending in a final conclusion. It may go on entirely within the experience of an individual inquirer or it may result in the raising of issues which are studied and discussed by many people. Now, it is in this stage of the thought process that the inquirer and the speaker are in an important measure in a like situation. Both have a proposition, and both are using what evidence they can obtain in order to demonstrate either the tenableness or the untenableness of the proposition. The inquirer may be speaking only to himself or he may, like the speaker, be discoursing with others.[4] And as for the speaker, he may be engaged in building up a case as if he were talking merely to himself. Certainly no one will deny that the history of oratory as well as common experience show very clearly that the processes of logic play as relevant a role in communication as they do in inquiry. And if they do, then the distinctions which they demand and the standards which they set up must have a bearing on what goes on in speech. Moreover, how could it be otherwise, when the primary business of the inquirer is to get close to realities, and the primary business of the speaker is, as often as not, to lead his hearers close to such realities? Woolbert's doctrine that logical standards should always be subordinated (in rhetoric) to the aims of speech, ignores the important facts that the particular aims of speech are very frequently determined by the standards held aloft by logic, and that the processes of logic are directed fundamentally toward objectivity.

But does this version of the duality meet the requirements of modern psychology? Is it, in other words, consonant with what psychology can teach us about the human personality? Let us consider the most pertinent facts of the case: (1) This version of the duality does not violate the generally accepted hypothesis of psychological monism, for it postulates no separate psychological mechanisms to correspond to the two means of persuasion. (2) The division which this version of the duality does postulate refers to behavior rather than to individual structures or mechanisms. It assumes, and that soundly, that when men are thinking according to

[4]This agreement between the situation of the inquirer and that of the speaker is very clearly recognized in Henry Day's *Elements of the Art of Rhetoric*, dated 1850.

the demands of logical ends they are simply giving certain types of direction and aid to functions which operate also in non-logical ways. (3) This version of the duality conforms to the doctrine of the psychologists of language that the responses of the hearer to the stimuli proceeding from the speaker are basically perceptual in nature,[5] and that, therefore, they are too complex for psychological division into simple types of reaction. (4) This version of the duality makes full allowance for the fact that the power of the processes of the speaker to govern the processes of the hearer has real limitation. And (5), this version of the duality is not affected by the fact that modern psychology appears to have rendered our traditional definition of the concepts of *conviction* and *persuasion* untenable. These facts appear to show that there is nothing in modern psychology that can cast serious doubt on this version of the duality.

But, Woolbert would say, is the distinction expressed in this version of the duality sufficiently clear-cut to be worth considering? The answer to this question is that it is adequately clear-cut. That the distinction is not absolute or that it is not readily palpable to the mind is due to the fact that it refers to phenomena so complex and dynamic that their individuation is neither boldly marked nor statically fixed. And yet this difficulty has never deterred the human race from believing that some sort of a real distinction can here be posited, if we can judge by the fact that we persist in using the popular dichotomy of "mind" and "heart". And scientists and philosophers have for centuries distinguished between the logically relevant and the logically irrelevant. Among scientists and philosophers this distinction will always be maintained in spite of its partial elusiveness, for it plays a crucial role in their search for knowledge. Shall rhetoricians ask for more than nature and the human mind can give?

We come, then, to the final question about our duality: What exactly, is the proper place of the duality in a system of argumentation or of rhetoric in general? Miss Yost ends her essay with the apparent belief that the duality may be completely ignored. Mr. Woolbert defines the duality in a special way and denies it a major place among the principles of the subject of persuasion. Winans and Utterback give full recognition in the body of their work to the implications of the duality but without discussing or even naming it.

[5]See Pillsbury and Meader: *The Psychology of Language*, pp. 129-187.

O'Neill and McBurney[6] follow an essentially Aristotelian conception of the duality and return in part to the terminology employed in 1850 by Professor Day. What shall we say of the duality as expounded in this study? Clearly, it is by nature a major distinction for argumentation as well as for logic. There are times when the arguer's sole task is to pursue the knowledge-establishing aim. At such times the distinction is of as crucial importance as it is in investigation. There are times when the arguer's task is primarily of logical character and secondarily of an attitude-establishing character. At such times the distinction is vitally relevant to the speaker's work. There are times when objective knowledge-values and persuasion-values have equal standing in the arguer's work. At such times, however, the need for making the distinction is always potentially there. And there are times when the arguer's claims are challenged as untenable. At such times the distinction may rise to one of major consideration. Such are the facts when we look at argumentation in actual practice. They show that the distinction expressed in the duality is of a major character. But this evidence is strongly reinforced by another consideration—the consideration of argumentation as a discipline. Standards in our educational institutions may differ, but the principle that education should make us more capable of using our minds in rigorous knowledge-achieving ways is one which no educational institution should permit itself to ignore. It may be true that the main object of the course in argumentation is to make the student effective in persuasive speaking. But what are the implications of the term "effective" in this connection? Are they not, in part, that the student should know the difference between true and unsound judgment? Besides, is the course in argumentation intended to give the student only skill, or is it intended to help make him an educated man?

Every important consideration indicates that our duality does represent a principle of a major character for argumentation. This problem must be regarded as settled. The problem which remains is the problem pointed to by Miss Yost. Simply stated it is this: How shall we embody this principle in our text-books and the teaching of our subject so as to allow for its adaptation to differences in situations, and so as to keep our use of the duality from making the

[6] *The Working Principles of Argument*, MacMillan, 1932. This book has just appeared in the present author's mail.

student's work appear artificial? But this is a question which we have not space to discuss.

By way of a summary conclusion to this phase of our study we may be justified in making the following statements: (1) The age-old tradition of dichotomizing the means of persuasion has in general been sound. (2) The error in this tradition has lain in its dependence on psychology for the distinction sought. (3) The critics of this tradition have failed to solve the problem because they have not looked closely enough into the nature of the tradition and consequently have dealt with false issues in relation to it. (4) The Aristotelian duality is essentially on the right track. What it requires is that it be subjected to a fresh analysis and exposition in order that it may be brought into line with modern conceptions of logic and modern teachings in psychology. (5) A simple designation, and for that matter, definition, of the duality is difficult to create. The duality refers to complex events and processes rather than to things. (6) There can be no very serious objection to our using the terms "conviction" and "persuasion" provided we revise our conception of the phenomena to which they properly refer. (7) The terms "appeal to reason" and "appeal to feelings" are misleading. They carry all the fault of the psychological approach to the duality, and, besides, the first implies too much and the second implies too little. (8) The Aristotelian duality as re-defined in the light of present day points of view represents a principle of a major character in relation to argumentation.

Logic and More Logic

Another question which appears frequently in discussions of argumentation is the question of the relation of logic to our subject. Here four distinct issues are usually raised. The first is, whether logic should be given any place at all in argumentation. The second is, whether we need to give logic consideration in its technical aspects. The third is, whether we should teach our students to know logical principles and techniques generally. And the fourth is, whether the body of logical materials now found in our standard text-books needs to be supplemented with logical materials called "new".

The answers to these questions are not far to seek. Any thought is subject in some manner to logical testing. Any thought which is

deliberate implies the consideration of logical principles of some sort. The logical element may appear in argument without exhibiting its possible technical aspects. It may, on the other hand, exhibit a perfect logical form. But we cannot fully appreciate logical principles and guides unless we know logic technically. No subject can suffer from being taught in its full technical character provided it is also presented in terms of its vital practical functions. As for the "new" in logic, it ought, of course, to be embodied in our text-books if it is known to be sound. If in human thought and discussion new methods and forms are evolved that is all the justification necessary for recognizing them in rhetoric.

The Problem of the Brief

The character and use of our traditional brief have been the subject of discussion and criticism on many occasions in recent years. Those who attack the brief center their objections in the claims that the brief is restrictive in scope, and that it usually necessitates a dual task in the work of the student.

In attempting to deal with these objections we need to begin by reminding ourselves of the fact that the Bakerian brief represents an invention evolved to serve certain definite purposes. It represents no tradition which we are required to observe as a custom or as an unchangeable formula. If it fails to serve its purposes satisfactorily it can and ought to be revised. Its character and use are justifiable only by its practical worth and adequacy. The relation of the process of briefing to our work is of such a nature that we may invent as many kinds of briefs as our purposes require, provided they serve those purposes properly and successfully.

This principle of freedom disposes of the first objection. If our brief is such that it rules out the use of some thought forms then we ought to revise it, or invent an additional brief. All that seems necessary is that we understand fully both the nature of the brief and the nature of the thought form.

The second question raises a problem for which there probably can be no standard solution. The problem is complicated by the fact that briefing may serve several purposes and that it may function at several stages of the student's preparation and delivery of an argument. The duality involved in the handling of the brief is sometimes automatically avoided if the speech as delivered is of a strictly logical

character. It (the duality) may be rendered unnecessary by the use of a brief which is in content and purpose the outline of the complete argumentative speech. But there are special values in obliging the student to explore a subject beyond the scope of the projected forensic, and to brief the results of his study in a comprehensive form. There are also special values in obliging the student to focus his attention in the briefing on logical considerations alone. And so long as these values cannot be fully realized without the use of exclusively logical or comprehensive briefing so long the duality in the student's task has to be tolerated.

Shall There be a New Argumentation?

In conclusion, let us see what inferences our study permits us to draw with reference to the proposition that our time calls for a new argumentation.

The inferences we can validly draw are of both a negative and an affirmative character. If we mean by "new" argumentation something as radically new as what we find advocated by Dean Yost and Professor Woolbert, and as what we find attempted in the book by Professors Collins and Morris, then our inference must be of a negative character. If the above analysis of argumentation in its problemmatic phases is sound, there can be no call for a radical departure from tradition so far as the theory and principles of our subject are concerned.

But if we mean by "new" argumentation a *corrected* and *improved* system of argumentation then our inference must be of a decidedly affirmative character. Our system of argumentation does need to be rewritten. It needs more of the beyond-the-classroom social outlook. It needs to take more account of the fact of variety in argumentative situations. It needs to make greater use of the point of view and of the principles of psychology. It needs to give a more comprehensive and more intelligent treatment to the processes of logic. It needs to present a sound exposition of the old dichotomy of *conviction* and *persuasion*. It needs to exhibit more wisdom in the handling of the subject of briefing. And it needs to relate itself definitely and fully not only to the student's search for skill and power but also to the general aims of higher education.

A SURVEY OF SPEECH CURRICULA

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THERE is throughout the country a spirit of unrest and inquiry concerning the Speech Curriculum. And there may well be. A glance at some of the following facts and tables will convince even the innocent bystander that it is time that at least a minimum of agreement and sane organization should appear in the field of Speech.

The following survey gives data gathered by means of an exhaustive study of the current catalogues of 356 colleges and universities listed in the "Educational Directory" of the Federal Bureau of Education for 1929. The catalogues used in this research were those for the school year 1929-30, and 1930-31.

The data arising from this survey and here presented are as follows: 1. Number of titles and types of courses offered. 2. Total number of courses offered. 3. Courses required for graduation. 4. Hours required for a major. 5. Number of separate Speech departments. 6. Institutions offering higher degrees.

It was first necessary to list the course titles and record the contents of each course. After this had been completed, it was found necessary to divide the courses and to list them according to subject matter under the following eleven arbitrary divisions: 1. Argumentation and Debate. 2. Interpretation. 3. Oratory and Rhetoric. 4. Parliamentary Law. 5. Public Speaking. 6. Psychology of Speech. 7. Teaching of Speech. 8. The Theater. 9. Phonetics. 10. Speech Correction, Clinic and Pathology. 11. Miscellaneous.

The total number of titles in each division and the frequency of each title was noted. In the 356 college and university catalogues studied, it was discovered that a grand total of 2,083 courses were offered. In this group of 2,083 courses there were 694 different course titles.

In the classification *Argumentation and Debate*, it was found that 327 courses were offered. These 327 courses were found to be listed under 60 different titles. The titles which appeared most frequently in this general division were: Argumentation and Debate (90), Debate (70), Argumentation (45), and Intercollegiate Debate (28). Fifty-four titles were found which appeared four or fewer

times. These titles were distributed haphazardly over 69 different courses. In other words, these 356 colleges and universities of the United States, offer 327 opportunities for students to study Argumentation or Debate.

One will find upon reading the aims and objectives of the courses, and upon noting the particular texts used in the 327 argumentation and debate courses, that the fundamental principles taught are very much the same in all cases. That there is not much disagreement among teachers in this division is further apparent when we consider the fact that 258 of these 327 courses are listed under 6 titles. The last fact alone would indicate that the field of argumentation and debate is relatively well-organized.

In the division *Interpretation*, it was found that 414 courses were offered under 179 different titles. Two hundred and ten of these courses were classified under 23 different titles. In this group the titles which appeared most frequently were: Interpretative Reading (38), Dramatic Interpretation (32), Story Telling (26), Literary Interpretation (25), Interpretation of Literature (22), Interpretation (19), Advanced Interpretation (14), and Oral Reading (11). One hundred and fifty-six titles, which appeared four or fewer times, were distributed haphazardly over 204 different courses. One common practice among teachers of Oral Interpretation of Literature, is naming their courses after the materials used, i. e., Interpretation of Tennyson, Interpretation of Browning, Interpretation of Shakespeare, etc.

That the titles Declamation and Elocution are almost extinct is evinced by the fact that in the 414 courses offered, there are but few given under variations of these two titles.

Apparently there is now a profound interest in the interpretation of *dramatic* literature. This is exemplified by the great variety and number of titles imploying the word *dramatic*. A few samples of such titles are, Dramatic Technique, Dramatic Reading, Dramatic Interpretation, Literary and Dramatic Interpretation, Dramatic Expression, etc.

It seems that teachers everywhere are agreed that this division of speech is concerned with some form of interpretation since that term is used alone and in various combinations with other words for hundreds of courses. However, the fact that the work of the class is the *Oral* Interpretation of Literature is rarely revealed in the title

itself. The title Oral Reading appears but 11 times. Indeed, fewer than 25 course titles in the total 179 contain the word *Oral*.

Under *Oratory and Rhetoric* it was found that 110 courses were offered under 50 different titles. It was also discovered that 49 of these courses were classified under 4 different titles. The two favorite titles were, The Oration (20), and Oratory (16). Forty-six of these 50 titles appeared fewer than four times and were distributed haphazardly over 61 courses.

In the *Parliamentary Law* division there were but 35 courses in which the entire time was devoted to parliamentary procedure. Twenty-six of these courses bore the title Parliamentary Law.

The *Public Speaking* classification is the largest of the eleven divisions. Five hundred and forty-four courses were offered under 135 titles. However, there were 376 courses offered under 19 titles. This means that the percentage of unique titles runs lower than in any other division. The remaining 168 courses had 116 different titles. One of the interesting factors in this division is the exceptional number of times the title Public Speaking appeared. It was found in 128 instances. The other titles which appeared most frequently were: Extemporaneous Speech (60), Advanced Public Speaking (41), Fundamentals of Speech (40), Public Address (27), Principles of Public Speaking (13), Forms of address (12), Elements of Public Speaking (10), and Fundamentals of Speech (10).

From the similarity of the titles used in the division *Public Speaking* and from the similarity of the content and procedure outlined for each course, it appears that a few basic principles have been agreed upon by teachers everywhere. Further, it appears, since the title *Public Speaking* is used so frequently, that teachers are naming their courses after a division of the Speech field, rather than after the material or the text used.

The *Psychology* division is the smallest. In a total of 22 courses there are but 12 titles. None of these appeared over 4 times. Most of them appeared only once.

Courses in *Methods of Teaching Speech* are relatively few when we note that there are but 69 courses listed in the 356 colleges studied. These 69 courses were classified under 30 titles. Forty-two of these courses were classified under 28 titles.

In the classification *The Theatre*, it was found that 436 courses were offered under 155 different titles. Two hundred and sixty of

these courses were classified under 19 different titles. The titles which appeared most frequently in this division were: Play Production (87), Stage Craft (23), Dramatic Production (18), Acting (18), Play Writing (16), Dramatic Art (14), Dramatics (12), Modern Drama (10), and Play Directing (10).

Fifteen courses were called *Phonetics*. The other 17 titles covering 24 courses were variations of this one. There was a total of 39 courses offered in this division.

The *Speech Correction* division was relatively large for its age. There was a total of 58 courses offered, of which 18 were called Speech Correction. Thirty-one titles were spread haphazardly over a series of 40 courses.

The final arbitrary division, *Miscellaneous*, was found necessary after it was discovered that several courses could not be classified according to the preceding divisions. There were 29 courses which, being neither fish nor fowl, were put into this group. There were 18 different titles, no one of which appeared more than four times.

From these facts it will be seen that the most popular courses offered in Speech training are those found in the division of *Public Speaking*. The most popular of all the titles bears the same name. A summary of the popularity of courses and course titles offered by the 356 colleges in the survey will be found in the following table.

TABLE I

Divisions having the largest number of courses.		Titles used the greatest number of times in these divisions.	
Public Speaking	544	Public Speaking	128
The Theatre	436	Play Production	87
Interpretation	414	Interpretative Reading	38
Argumentation and Debate	327	Argumentation and Debate	90
Total	1,721		

It will be seen that 1,721 of the 2,083 courses offered under 694 different titles, are in the four divisions above.

Catalogue descriptions of courses bearing the same titles were compared in an attempt to discover similarities of purpose and instruction. Courses bearing the same title scarcely ever have wholly the same aim or the same content. Very often similarly named courses have widely different purposes and subject matter. Various

explanations might be offered for the large number of unique titles in each division. The most apparent reason for this random selection of course titles is the lack of standardization in how Speech should, or should not, be taught, or what should, or should not, be included in any one Speech course. Perhaps greater standardization in title, content, and purpose of a given course is the very thing Speech teachers should be agreeing upon if maximum efficiency and effectiveness in teaching the Speech arts and sciences is to be reached.

Only a comparatively few institutions so far require speech courses for graduation. It was found that most of the required Speech courses are for freshmen and engineers. Thirty-six institutions require such courses for graduation. These courses, in general, must be taken during the freshmen and sophomore years and seem to be devised for the purpose of helping the student to orient himself and to relieve himself of that painful sense of inadequacy which so many freshmen feel.

A very few institutions, most of which are found in the far eastern parts of the United States, require all their students to pass a "Speech Test". If the student succeeds in passing this test, he is not required to take special courses or training in Speech. The most important reason for this requirement is perhaps the prevalence of foreign accents and dialects. The second important reason advanced is for the promotion of "beautiful speech" or for the standardization of diction.

There is no consistency in the number of courses and hours required for a major in Speech. As nearly as it was possible to discover, 135 colleges offered majors in Speech. Of this group, 80 maintained separate Speech Departments. In this group there is a variation in the requirement for a major ranging from 18 to 35 hours. The average number of hours is 24. Even among the institutions offering higher degrees in Speech, there is little uniformity of major requirements. Among the 5 institutions which offer Ph. D. degrees, (Table 2), there is considerable variation in requirements for the undergraduate major. The University of Iowa requires 22 hours, the University of Michigan 24, George Washington University 25, Cornell University 30, and the University of Wisconsin 30.

An attempt was made, from a study of 356 catalogues, to ascertain how many colleges and universities offered Master's Degrees. This was a difficult task, and the result may prove in some cases to

be embarassing, since catalogues have a way of being vague and indefinite on this point. I believe, however, that the list of 16 institutions given in Table 2 is correct.

There seems to be no correlation between the size of the institutions and the number of Speech courses offered. Th institutions offering Ph. D. degrees in speech do not list the largest number and variety of speech courses.

Though it has not been possible to present here all the facts unearthed by this survey, I believe that those included are of importance to teachers and students, and to schools and departments of Speech. Further, I dare to hope that these facts may assist in bringing about a greater standardization in the field of Speech, a need which the reader will readily recognize.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES OFFERING HIGHER DEGREES

Stanford University	M. A.
University of Southern California	M. A.
Northwestern University	M. A.
Butler University	M. A.
Depauw University	M. A.
University of Iowa	M. A.-Ph. D.
University of Michigan	M. A.-Ph. D.
University of Minnesota	M. A.
St. Louis University	M. A.
Cornell University	M. A.-Ph. D.
University of Utah	M. A.
State College of Washington	M. A.
University of Washington	M. A.
George Washington University	M. A.-Ph. D.
Marquette University	M. A.
University of Wisconsin	M. A.-Ph. D.

FOREIGN ACCENT AMONG BOYS AND GIRLS

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It is now a rather generally accepted opinion that the percentage of stuttering among boys is much greater than among girls. One is prompted to inquire whether this articulatory difficulty obtains also in the field of dialectal defects. This paper will give the results

of an investigation of foreign accent of boys as compared to that of girls.

For this survey, 180 pupils of Garfield Heights High School and Garfield Elementary School of Garfield Heights, Cleveland, Ohio, were tested. Only those students whose parents (both mother and father) spoke a foreign language as a native tongue were chosen. Ten boys and ten girls from each grade from 4A to 12A inclusive were taken at random to obtain as unselected a group as possible. The "A" or second semester of each grade was arbitrarily selected, so that a whole year's difference would be between the groups.

The purpose of this test was not, of course, told to the children. They were merely asked to read a paragraph (simple enough for the average fourth grade child to read easily) containing all the consonantal and most frequent vowel sounds of English as given in the International Phonetic Alphabet. As each child read, I jotted down on a card the letter substitutions or failures. When there was any doubt as to the articulation of any sound, the child was asked to pronounce another word (from a supplementary list) containing the doubtful sound.

I evolved the following test paragraph: "There were two queer bugs. One was jet black and the other white. Both had yellow wings. The large bug said, 'I shall race with you to the edge of that vine.' But in his excitement he fell down."

At first glance, this test may appear to be inadequate. I admit that it does not contain all the sounds in initial, medial and final positions, but a complete analysis was not the purpose of this test. I wanted to compare boys with girls as to the facility in the production of English sounds. As fifteen nationality groups were represented, there was an insufficient number for comparisons between groups.

A definite divergence between boys and girls was found. The formula used to find the Probable Error of the Mean was $\frac{.8453\ \Sigma M.V.}{\sqrt{H}}$

The Probable Error of the Difference which was .35 was .074. As the Probable Error is almost five times the Difference, the validity of the results is established.

		Boys		Girls	
1.	Number of Substitutions		.62		.31
2.	Average	.69	.061	.34	.042
3.	Difference		.35		

The total number was derived by counting each type of substitution just once for each child; i. e., if "t" was substituted for "θ" twice or more during the reading, only one substitution was recorded. If "t" and "d" were substituted for θ and ð respectively, two substitutions were listed.

The average is the average number of substitutions for each child computed by dividing total number of substitutions by the total number tested for the boys and girls respectively.

Table I gives, grade by grade, the number of children making substitutions. The greatest difference between boys and girls occurred in the fifth grade.

TABLE I

Number, Grade by Grade, of Children with Substitutions.

Grade	Boys	Girls	Difference
4A	6	6	0
5A	13	1	12
6A	13	4	9
7A	4	6	-2
8A	5	3	2
9A	9	3	6
10A	3	2	1
11A	6	3	3
12A	3	3	0
	62	31	31

Table II gives, grade by grade, the specific substitutions made. The English "th" sound (phonetically written "ð" for voiced and "θ" for voiceless) proved most difficult to articulate. This sound is probably the last to be learned, for in a number of cases it was the only one imperfectly produced. To the ear accustomed only to the sounds of the English language, the consonant "d" would seem articulated for "ð" and "t" for θ. What the foreigner really does is to make a plosive "ð" for the English "ð" and a plosive "θ" for the English "θ". Such plosives occur in German, for instance, and the difference between these two sounds in the two languages is not heard by the average foreigner unless it is specifically called to his attention.

The next substitution in frequency is "j" for "dʒ" as in "jet". This was in the initial position. In every case, the sound "dʒ" was correctly produced in the final position of the word "edge".

TABLE II
Specific Substitutions

Grade	Plos-ive ð for English ð		Plos-ive θ for English θ		j for dʒ		ɛr for ir		θ for s		aer for ɛr		w for v		vɪn for vam		juz for ju	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
4A	3	2	3	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5A	8	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6A	6	0	6	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
7A	2	3	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
8A	3	1	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9A	4	1	5	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10A	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11A	2	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
12A	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Combined Total	42		37		6		2		1		1		2		1		1	

The substitution "w" for "v" is a common one, especially in people of German extraction.

The production of "θ" for "s" occurred in the case of one fourth grade girl and may be ascribed to a lisp and perhaps has no significance as far as foreign accent is concerned.

"ɛr" for "ir" was given once in the word "queer," and "ær" for "ɛr" in the word "were".

The tacking on of "z" to the word you (juz) is very common among the uneducated of Cleveland.

It is my opinion that there is much more substitution among both boys and girls in spontaneous speech than in reading, for the language is first acquired by ear. In school the children are taught the correct sound with the visual symbol and thus will be more likely to read correctly. They were conscious of the fact that they were being tested and that they were being singled out, though the examiner tried to make the situation as pleasant and natural as possible.

In view of the later interpretation, it is my belief that even though we could check on spontaneous speech, there would still be a difference between boys and girls.

A year previous to this date, I made a preliminary study for this thesis. Using the same material and procedure, 37 boys and 32 girls of the fifth grade were tested. 60 per cent of the boys made substitutions as compared to 40 per cent of the girls. At the same time, 30 boys and 23 girls of the eighth grade were tested. Here 54 per cent of the boys made substitutions as compared to 40 per cent of the girls. The divergence in the latter group was not then considered great enough to be valid. It was then assumed that the number of cases was insufficient, but in the light of the present study, we find a closer correlation of the two sexes at this grade age. As boys approach the girls in maturity, they tend to equal them in achievement.

The results of this study point to a genuine sex difference. The question next to be considered is the underlying cause contributing to the divergence. We shall consider this question from three angles: physical, mental (by this term we mean innate capacity), and social.

G. Stanley Hall[1] states that about 105 boys are born to every 100 girls, but through life the male death rate is higher.

[1]G. Stanley Hall: *Adolescence*; D. Appleton & Company (New York, 1924) Volume II, 563.

In a study of sex ratio among human still births, Greulich[2] found a greater mortality among males. In a very detailed analysis Harris and Benedict[3] found the rate of metabolism higher in men than in women. Color blindness is found more often among men than in women. Travis[4] found that in stuttering, boys outnumber girls and are much more likely to persist in the defect. In this connection, it might be relevant to recall that left-handed boys outnumber left-handed girls.

In the White House Conference Survey on Child Health and Protection, 1930,[5] a detailed study was made of correction of speech defects in 41 cities of the United States. The purpose of these tables was to show the rapid decrease, grade by grade, of cases as a result of speech correction work. We can, however, deduce a sex difference, for in every table, in nearly every grade, the number of boys who benefited by speech instruction was greater than the number of girls, so that we can assume that the number of boys having speech defects was greater than the number of girls. We find a steadily decreasing enrollment as we reach the upper grades, and that the difference between the boys and girls is negligible at the twelfth grade.

Table III shows the ratio between the number of speech defects among girls as compared with the number among boys. These results were secured by dividing the number of boys by the number of girls in each grade. This ratio gives the number of girls with speech defects compared to every hundred boys with speech defects.

The greatest difference between boys and girls in the present study occurs in the fifth grade, the next greatest is in the sixth grade. This correlates exactly with the findings of the Committee on Speech Defects of the White House Conference Survey, for the greatest difference between boys and girls in dialectal defects occurs in the fifth grade, closely followed by the sixth grade also.

E. A. Lincoln[6] in his book *Sex Differences in the Growth of*

[2]W. W. Greulich: Sex Ratio Among Human Still-Births, (July 10, 1931) *Science* 74:53-54.

[3]J. Arthur Harris and F. G. Benedict: *Biometric Study of Nasal Metabolism in Man;* Carnegie Institution of Washington, pages 221-2.

[4]L. E. Travis: *Speech Pathology;* D. Appleton and Company (N. Y. 1931).

[5]*White House Conference on Child Health & Protection,* page 97. Education and Training, Sec. 111. (1930) pages 350-375.

[6]E. A. Lincoln: *Sex Differences in Growth of American School Children;* Warwick and York (Baltimore 1927).

TABLE III

Ratio Between Number of Speech Defects Among Girls as Compared With the Number Among Boys of White House Conference Survey, 1930.

Grade	Sound Substitution	Stuttering	Structural Articulatory	Oral Inactivity	Dialectal Defects	Functional Voice	Structural Voice	Hard of Hearing	Paralytics Articulatory
1	.66	.32	.71	.67	.90	.72	.66	.61	.76
2	.60	.29	.62	.51	.41	.70	.60	.71	.75
3	.53	.27	.63	.52	.40	.75	.59	.80	1.08
4	.60	.23	.69	.76	.50	.52	.90	.53	1.27
5	.63	.23	.61	.52	.30	.52	.50	.83	.61
6	.61	.23	.68	.69	.33	.48	.58	.55	.57
7	.63	.21	.70	.61	.79	.76	1.33	.99	.60
8	.50	.26	.43	.77	.86	.46	1.71	.60	3.50

American School Children, says that the most significant thing about sex differences in physical traits is the fact that at any age the girls are physically more mature than the boys. Those who are more mature will do better work. This opinion is further confirmed by Woodrow.[7]

Brooks[8] states that the rate of improvement for boys and girls suggests no significant sex differences.

But, granting the boys their slower physical development, we still find a divergence between them and the girls. If we compare the boys of the same physiological period of development as the girls by comparing the fifth grade boys with the fourth grade girls, sixth grade boys with the fifth grade girls, etc., we get a total difference of 28 as compared to the total difference of 31 on the chronological basis. Actually, in every grade, the average chronological age of the girls averaged from .1 per cent to 1 per cent lower than

[7]Herbert Woodrow: *Brightness and Dullness in Children;* J. P. Lippincott Co. (Chicago, 1919) 60.

[8]F. D. Brooks: *Changes in Mental Traits With Age*; University of Chicago Press (1903) page 169.

the boys. Thus we cannot ascribe the sex difference to slower maturation of the boys.

We must conclude, then, from the data of the objective studies of sex differences quoted that a possible cause for the difference between boys and girls in speech defects is due to innate constitutional divergence.

In studies of some thousands of cases of boys and girls from 9 to 20 years of age tested by Thorndike,[9] the differences in sheer intellectual capacity were found to be too slight to be of great importance. While there is no difference in the total scores, there seem to be differences in performance of individual tests comprising the whole.

Woolley[10] found, in strength, rapidity of movement, rate of fatigue and general motor ability, a decided superiority of men, due to their greater muscular strength. The ability to coordinate movements rapidly to unforseen stimuli is clearly greater in women. Girls excel in literary tests, rote memory and logical memory. Findings since the earliest days have indicated the superiority of girls and women in tests of a linguistic type. They are somewhat superior to the boys in reading. They are far ahead of the boys in writing work, no matter whether the comparisons are made by grade or age. Girls are better spellers than boys. Therefore a possible cause for the superiority of girls in the acquisition of a new language is an innate tendency or a greater interest in things linguistic.

Burt[11] points to the difference in environment and experiences which may give girls an advantage in linguistic tests. "Sheltered, supervised and detained at home, the girls incline to sedentary lives and engage in literary pursuits . . . they consequently excel in linguistic work and conversational activities. Boys have more to do with perceptual out-of-door pursuits."

It would seem that girls at every age fit into their environment better than boys, either because their environment happens to suit them or because they can adapt themselves more readily to existing conditions.

"Surveys[12] of behavior problem cases in Detroit and Chicago

[9]E. L. Thorndike: Sex in Education (April, 1906) *Bookman* 23:211-4.

[10]Mrs. H. B. Woolley: *Psychological Norms in Men and Women;* University of Chicago Press (1903) page 169.

[11]Cyril Burt: *Mental and Scholastic Tests*; (London, 1922) page 196.

[12]White House Conference Survey—Education & Training, Sec. 111, 499.

Public Schools and in Cleveland Child Guidance Clinic, show that approximately four times as many boys as girls are reported as behavior problems. It is suspected, however, that many cases of personality maladjustment of girls are not detected or recognized as such by school systems, which explains the discrepancy in the ratio." The reason for this slowness in detecting maladjustment of girls, I presume, may be in their greater ability to conform, at least outwardly, to conventional standards.

We can account for the greater difference between boys and girls in the fifth grade or thereabouts in the greater adaptability of the girls and the greater resistance to convention by the boys which seems to culminate at the entrance into puberty. Psychologically boys about 10 or 11 are in the "gang" period. They set up as leader one of their own group. They are physiologically most active; their games involve highly coordinated muscular movements and team work. They become so imbued with ideals of the gang that they resent paternal restrictions. They ignore girls, for the most part, or accept only those who can compete equally in their sports. They begin to show skepticism of the precepts laid down by their teachers.

Boys then are interested in active entertainment rather than passive ones. R. W. Bullock[13] classified and tabulated 2,000 returns from school children from the third to the twelfth grade inclusive, concerning their reading. Grade for grade, the girls read much more than the boys.

During this active period, boys like to have their own language code, and it is at this time that they take particular delight in slang. The girls at this period show the opposite tendencies. They want to conform to conventional standards and so win the approval of those whom they admire. Thus the greater difference between the boys at the fifth grade is due to the boys' interest in more strenuous pursuits than those connected with literary activities of which speech is an important factor.

In conclusion we can say that this test on this particular group of children proved the boys less able to make the articulatory coordinations of a new language as readily as the girls. The differences of sex are due, not to differences of average capacity but to physiolog-

[13]R. W. Bullock: *Some Observations on Children's Reading;* Proc. of the N. E. A. 1897 (page 1015).

ical differences and differences in social influences brought to bear on the developing individual from infancy to adulthood. The development of intellectual life of women has always been one of social necessities and ideals rather than inborn psychological characteristics of sex. Speech is a cultural indication and therefore more significant in women's development.

PROBLEMS IN MEASURING AUDIENCE REACTION

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Some ten years ago, a teacher of Speech at one of our Eastern colleges announced[1] the invention of a shift-of-opinion ballot which could be employed for class-room study of the reactions of student audiences to student speakers. Six years later, another teacher of Speech, at one of our Middle-Western universities, reported[2] an adaptation of this ballot for use in recording the reaction of members of the popular audience under the influence of student debaters. Since then, for purposes of "audience-decision" in intercollegiate and public forum debates, the shift-of-opinion ballot has had increasing usefulness.

And yet, but one teacher of Speech has reported[3] an attempt to use such a ballot as a means of recording audience-reaction in an experimental situation; G. R. Collins made it the means for comparing the original opinion-status of students with their preferences for varying amounts of "motive appeal" as employed by speakers. Apparently no one has attempted to determine the experimental validity of the data to be obtained from an analysis of audience-reaction in so far as it is expressed on the shift-of-opinion ballot.

Presumably this has been due to the fact that there are inherent

[1]W. E. Utterback: "Measuring the Reaction of an Audience to an Argumentative Speech", *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*, Vol. VIII, No. 2, Apr. 1922, pp. 180-183.

[2]H. S. Woodward: "Measurement and Analysis of Audience-Opinion", *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XIV, No. 2, Feb. 1928, pp. 94-111.

[3]G. R. Collins: "The Relative Effectiveness of Condensed and Extended Motive Appeal", *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*, Vol. X, No. 2, June, 1924, pp. 221-230.

difficulties involved in the application of an adequate experimental technique to the study of the popular audience in the "natural" speech situation, where strict laboratory conditions cannot prevail. Yet, without experimental data, we must be considerably retarded in any attempt to evaluate the factors said to "influence" members of an audience.

There is contained in this paper, therefore, a summary of the data obtained by an experimental use of the shift-of-opinion ballot for the purpose of recording audience-reaction in especially created speech situations. Emphasis is placed not so much upon the use of the ballot as upon the difficulties involved in its use for experimental purposes in actual debates before audiences of the popular sort.

Four of the experimental problems, which arise when the shift-of-opinion ballot is employed for study of the psychology of the audience, have been singled out for discussion here:

(1) Does the vote upon the ballot actually represent opinion and opinion-change? Can we actually study audience-opinion by use of the shift-of-opinion ballot in experimental situations?
(2) Is there a statistical measure which can be applied to shift of opinion in the audience, and which will permit a simple yet adequate description of audience-reaction in terms of a common absolute standard?
(3) Can the effect of Rebuttal on opinion-shift in experimental work with the actual audience, be controlled?
(4) Can sex and age factors in the audience be controlled?

This is by no means an exhaustive list of the problems which arise when we attempt to control experimental conditions in the actual speaker-audience situation; nor can this paper do more than make mere tentative answers to the questions suggested.

General Experimental Procedure

The form of ballot employed is that described by Professor H. S. Woodward in his pioneer studies[2] of audience-opinion, as reported in The Quarterly Journal of Speech for February, 1928. It will be remembered that the Woodward shift-of-opinion ballot provided for recording opinion in regard to a specific proposition for debate, in one of three categories "Before the Discussion"—favorable to the proposition, undecided, and unfavorable to the proposition; and in, one of five ways "After the Discussion"—more favorable than be-

fore, favorable, undecided, unfavorable, and more unfavorable than before. In each case, the audience-member is asked to record present opinion regarding the subject of debate. Each shift of opinion is treated as having the value of one unit, without any attempt to evaluate the extent of shift of opinion.

As early as 1924, it had been questioned[4] whether experimental work with the actual audience could maintain both the "natural" speech situation and adequate laboratory control. One way of testing this was to present several different modes of speaking to similar audiences, record the reactions on the shift-of-opinion ballot, and ascertain if audience-reaction is correlated to change in speaking mode. That briefly was what was done.

In as much as we are interested in problem and result, rather than technique, space will permit only a very general description of the experimental procedures employed to control conditions which involved many more problems than those selected for discussion in this paper.

For example, three different speaking modes were employed; and certainly, for teachers of Speech, we need not describe in detail the specific elements which must be varied in order to secure a clear demarcation between these three speaking modes! Though, for the student speakers, it must be very meticulously detailed.

It should be sufficient to say that the traditional "debate-case" with its nice adjustment of Argument and Persuasion and its use of the "conversational mode" of delivery, was taken as the (most frequently employed) mode of speech development, as applied in the debating situation. This was the mode which two speakers for the Negative employed constantly in opposing Compulsory Unemployment Insurance. Another mode of speaking involved a more extended "motive-appeal", a more extensive use of rhetorical device, more forceful bodily movement, and a greater variety in the use of quality and force for emotional emphasis than is ordinarily true. For purposes of description, we shall call this the Exhibitory mode. A much greater decrease in these elements, cutting out motive appeal, and rhetorical device, relying upon the exposition of argument and evidence demanded by the brief, reducing the use of force and qual-

[4]W. E. Utterback: Criticism of G. R. Collins' technique (*supra*, No. 3) *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*, Vol. X, No. 4, Nov. 1924, pp. 383-385.

ity to rely chiefly on pitch and pause for clearness—this may be described as the Academic Mode of speaking. These three modes were employed by the Affirmative speakers on different occasions when the Negative used the customary mode. For purposes of description, we shall call this "most frequently used" mode, the "Conversational" mode of speech development.

These speeches were presented before 23 different audiences and 937 people in the City of Cleveland. For those who may wish to examine the speeches, these can be found in a booklet entitled "Unemployment Insurance", published as a reprint of a chapter in the University Debaters Annual for 1930-1931, by The H. W. Wilson Company. For those who may wish to know more about the differentiation in delivery, let them come to Cleveland, where we will show some moving pictures taken of the speakers as they went through their paces in the modes of speaking. The moving-pictures and the written speeches indicate a clear differentiation between the modes of stimulation presented to the audiences.

The speeches were memorized by the speakers to prevent variation from mode, but the Rebuttal was extemporized within the particular mode to be employed. A vote was taken before Rebuttal so that the experimental validity of the results would not be injured by the possible variation from the mode of speaking in Rebuttal. In each debate there were two Affirmative speakers and two Negative speakers. The audiences selected were drawn from lodges of the order of Knights of Pythias; this was done in order to secure a homogenous group of people to act as subjects.

The same speakers who appeared in the experimental debates (those in which the Exhibitory and Academic modes were employed), appeared also during the year in debates before 370 voters and 9 audiences for which both Affirmative and Negative used the Conversational mode of speaking.

Space again does not permit the inclusion of a detailed analysis of reaction, audience by audience, as we have it in the records. We can only attempt to list the data for comparison of the reactions of the three different groups of voters who heard the three different modes of speaking.

TABLE I

Table I indicates the distribution of opinion for each mode of speaking before and after Discussion and after Rebuttal. The ab-

breviations Acad., Exhib., and Conv., refer respectively to the "Academic", "Exhibitory", "Conversational" modes of speaking. The two items at the bottom of the column contain the combined reactions of the Pythian and Student groups to the Academic and Exhibitory modes. All Tables should be interpreted in terms of tendency of shift toward the Affirmative or away from the Affirmative, since it was the Affirmative team which changed its mode of speaking on different occasions.

TABLE I

Distribution of Opinion for Each Mode of Speaking Before and After Discussion and After Rebuttal.

Mode	Voters	Audience No.	Audience Type	Before Discussion Aff.	Before Discussion Neg.	Before Discussion Und.	After Discussion Aff.	After Discussion Neg.	After Discussion Und.	After Rebuttal Aff.	After Rebuttal Neg.	After Rebuttal Und.
Acad.	217	7	Pythian	76	34	107	72	105	40	83	103	31
Exhib.	177	4	Pythian	72	28	77	74	71	32	82	63	32
Conv.	380	9	General	131	93	156	136	155	89	150	150	80
Acad.	317	9	Pyt.-St.	104	54	159	91	174	52			
Exhib.	240	5	Pyt.-St.	92	39	109	97	102	41			
Total	937	23	General	327	186	424	324	431	182	315	316	143

No data appear "After Rebuttal" for the Pythian-Student group since time conditions did not permit rebuttals before the students.

While the mere distribution of opinion after a discussion, sheds no light upon the specific movements or shifts which produced the distribution, four significant facts can be gleaned from Table I.

In the first place, it is important that the initial distribution should be similar for each of the modes—it indicates a similarity between groups of voters in reaction to a specific proposition and the groups studied will be essentially homogenous in opinion-reaction. And, we find that, for each of the modes, the inter-relations of the initial class of voters is roughly the same—a larger number of favorable voters than unfavorable, with the undecided group largest of all.

Secondly, it is important that the numbers of original favorable and unfavorable voters be roughly the same and comparable for the Exhibitory and Academic modes of speaking. That, too, is revealed in Table I in the column headed "Before the Discussion."

Thirdly, note that when the Affirmative is using the Academic mode or the Conversational mode there is a complete reversal of opinion distribution from predominantly favorable and undecided to predominantly unfavorable to the proposition, while for the Exhibitory mode, in which the Affirmative increases the motive appeal, its use of rhetorical device, and its use of changes in force and quality, the distribution is predominantly favorable after the Discussion as well as before. Even the Exhibitory mode group is less predominantly favorable After the Discussion than it was before; evidently, there is strong appeal to the voters in the Negative case. Note also that when the Affirmative speakers use the same (Conversational) mode as the Negative speakers the voting is disproportionately unfavorable though not to so great an extent as when the Affirmative speakers use the Academic mode. The "Exhibitory" Pythian-Student group is unfavorable to a much less extent than the "Academic" Pythian-Student group; in each case, the Undecided group is much depleted in numbers. Difference in mode of speaking, then, appears to be correlated to the opinion-class distribution After the Discussion, both for adult and student audiences.

Lastly, Rebuttal leaves the opinion-distribution established by the Discussion, approximately the same, except for the Conversational mode group, in which there are as many favorable as unfavorable voters after Rebuttal.

Detailed analysis has been given to determine the variety of shifts of opinion from initial position, necessary to produce the results found in Table I, but space does not permit more than to say that, in the attempt to hold and gain favorable voters, the Exhibitory mode is superior to the Academic mode of speaking in that it reveals a greater tendency to strengthen favorable opinion, to weaken unfavorable opinion, to secure undecided voters, so that there is a greater shift of opinion to favorable, less to unfavorable, fewer reversals from favorable than from unfavorable, and fewer unchanged than there is when the Affirmative uses the Academic mode of speaking. When the Affirmative uses the Conversational mode, the results are somewhere between those for the Exhibitory and the Academic modes, exactly as the actual difference between the speaking modes.

It would seem then that audiences do change opinion in response to student speakers, since response may be differentiated according to mode of speaking. The ballot seems to be an adequate technique

for recording audience reaction in response to different specific modes of speaking.

TABLE II

In order to control the factor of change from mode of speaking during Rebuttal, we took a vote of the audience before and after Rebuttal as well as before the Debate. Table II gives the average audience differences in shift of opinion due to Rebuttal in each mode of speaking. For all three modes, the final result for each category of shift of opinion is given in one column and the amount due to Rebuttal in a parallel column. The amount due to Rebuttal was calculated from the comparison of distribution of opimon After Discussion and that After Rebuttal.

Perhaps the most significant and surprising result is the large percentage of Unchanged for all modes of speaking during the Rebuttal; about the same percentage for the Exhibitory and the Academic (71 per cent and 73 per cent respectively), and the largest for the Conversational (89 per cent).

Examination of the different categories of shift-of-opinion indicates the small part played by Rebuttal as contrasted to the Discussion. It is during the Discussion apparently, that most people make up their minds and stick to it.

Apparently then, we can control the effect of Rebuttal upon opinion-shift in experimental situations. These studies would indicate that the effect of Rebuttal is to leave most of the audience unchanged in the position taken after the Discussion.

TABLE III

You will note at the end of Table II, some cabalistic letters entitled, R, Ar, and Nr. They represent an attempt to find some common standard to which the reaction of each audience might be related and the responses made comparable in terms of a single numerical expression. Is there a statistical measure which will permit a simple yet adequate description of audience-reaction in terms of a common absolute standard?

It is obvious that, if we ever hope to measure reaction we must find some simple means of expressing in mathematical terms, the effect of the whole situation and that of some of its elements in stimulating an audience. It is necessary to find some absolute standard

TABLE II

Average-Audience-Differences in Response Due to Rebuttal in Each Mode of Speaking

	Exhibitory Mode				Academic Mode				Conversational Mode			
	End-Vote		Due to Reb.		End-Vote		Due to Reb.		End-Vote		Due to Reb.	
	All	Ave.	All	Ave.	All	Ave.	All	Ave.	All	Ave.	All	Ave.
No. of Audiences	4	...	...	..	7	...	..	..	9	...	..	...
No. of Voters	177	44.3	...	..	217	31	..	..	380	42.2	..	...
No. of Favorable	72	18.0	...	..	76	10.9	..	..	131	14.6	..	...
No. of Fav. Strength	42	10.5	17	4.3	43	6.1	15	2.1	68	7.6	6	.67
Per Cent of Fav. Strength		.583		.236		.566		.197		.519		.046
No. of Unfavorable	28	7.0	...	..	34	4.9	..	..	93	10.3	..	...
No. of Unfav. Strength	20	5.0	7	1.8	28	4.0	5	.7	61	6.7	3	.33
Per Cent of Unfav. Strength		.714		.250		.824		.147		.656		.032
No. of Fav. Weakness	18	4.5	5	1.3	23	3.4	7	1.0	41	4.6	1	.11
Per Cent of Unfav. Weakness		.250		.069		.303		.092		.313		.008
No. of Unfav. Weakness	4	1.0	4	1.0	1	.1	0	0.0	17	1.7	7	.78
Per Cent of Unfav. Weakness		.143		.143		.029		.000		.183		.075
No. of Undecided	77	19.3	...	..	107	15.3	..	..	156	17.3	..	...
No. of Und. to Fav.	25	6.6	12	3.0	30	4.3	15	2.1	46	5.1	15	1.7
Per Cent of Und. to Fav.		.325		.156		.280		.140		.295		.096
No. Und. to Unfav.	32	8.0	6	1.5	54	7.9	18	2.6	56	6.2	10	1.1
Per Cent of Und. to Unfav.		.416		.078		.505		.168		.359		.064
No. of Unchanged	36	9.0	126	31.5	38	5.4	157	22.4	91	10.1	338	37.4
Unch. /No. Voters		.203		.712		.175		.725		.239		.889
Complete Reversals	10	2.5	4	1.0	17	2.4	0	0.0	32	3.6	4	.44
Revers. /No. Voters		.056		.023		.078		.000		.084		.011
Shift to Favorable	71	17.8	33	8.3	74	10.6	30	4.3	131	14.6	28	3.11
Shift to Unfav.	70	17.5	18	4.5	105	15.0	30	4.3	158	17.6	14	1.55
Net Shift	1	.25	15	3.8	-31	-4.4	0	0.0	-27	-3.0	14	1.55
R (Net Shift/Voters)		.006		.085		-.143		.00		-.071		.037
Ar (2As/Voters		.802		.375		.682		.277		.689		.147
Nr (2Ns/Voters)		.791		.203		.968		.277		.832		.074

shift of opinion to which the effect of each debate may be referred. Naturally, without such a standard, there is no basis for comparison of one situation with another. Further, every statistician knows the convenience of a simple numerical expression of reaction, in integers.

It occurred to me last year that we could relate every reaction to a theoretical situation in which conditions would operate equally toward Favorable and Unfavorable positions; if so, we would have the benefits of an absolute standard by which to measure audience reaction.

If we take possible shifts of opinion under conditions of equal stimulation away from a position of Undecided, facilitating with equal intensity movements of opinion in both directions (to Favorable and to Unfavorable), it is obvious that the Affirmative and Negative would each secure one-half of the total possible shifts of opinion. In such a case, the total possible shift of opinion would be the total number in the audience. A formula to express this should be such that when the effect of favorable stimulation is subtracted from the effect of unfavorable stimulation, the result would be zero; this would be the effect of equal stimulation of a theoretical audience in which other factors are equal. Then, $As/N = Ns/N$, or $\frac{As-Ns}{N} = 0$. (In which As represents Affirmative shift Ns represents Negative shift, and N represents possible shift or the total number of people in the audience, all of whom could shift). Under equally-operating conditions, the total effect of the situation would be represented then by the formula

$$R = \frac{As-Ns}{N}$$

In this formula, if $As = Ns$, the result will be zero. This formula represents mathematically, the net effect of shift of opinion. By means of the formula, audience-reaction is expressed in terms of an integer such as (-.1000) which would mean that the center of gravity of shift of opinion had been 1/10 removed to the negative from the theoretical zero point, and the stimulation was predominantly unfavorable either due to environment or due to audience bias.

Similarly, the effect of Affirmative stimulation alone or of Negative stimulation alone may be expressed by formula. Under a theoretical situation of equality of influence, $\frac{As+Ns}{N} = \frac{2\,As}{N} = 1$,

since $As = Ns$. This may be expressed $Ar = \frac{2\,As}{N}$. Similarly, $Nr = \frac{2Ns}{N}$. (In which Ar represents "Affirmative ratio", and Nr represents "Negative ratio"). R will be found to have the derived formula of $\frac{Ar - Nr}{2}$.

Under equal conditions of influence, formula for Ar and Nr would give the integer 1; under unequal conditions, the values will vary between 0 and 2. When Ar is approaching 2, Nr is approaching 0; when Nr is approaching 2, Ar is approaching 0. Ar and Nr permit numerical comparison of Affirmative and Negative teams presenting debates at different times on the same question before similar audiences.

R permits comparison of the total effect of stimulation in different situations in which there is a shift of opinion. Under unequal conditions, R will vary between the limits of plus and minus 1; under equal conditions, the formula gives the value of zero. This is, in effect, similar to the results obtained by using the formula for correlation. Preponderance of negative stimulation will give a minus quantity; preponderance of positive stimulation will give a plus quantity.

To be valid for comparison of speakers, these formulae assume that the audiences to be used are essentially similar, while for comparison of different types of audiences, they assume that the speakers present the same material and are essentially similar. This assumption may appear more justifiable if we remember that it is like those underlying the use of Intelligence Quotients and Mental Age formulae.

The formulae, then, show the relation of each debate to a theoretical situation or standard in which facilitation toward favorable or to unfavorable are of equal force in causing shift of opinion. They can be used to ascertain audience-bias if the same speakers are used with a great number of audiences and people; variation from 0 or from 1 will indicate resultant bias plus or minus.

Table III gives the gross shift of opinion for each type of speaking After Discussion and After Rebuttal. It is submitted without comment since Table IV is derived from it and the discussion following applies to both. The abbreviations Acad., Exhib., and Conv., represent respectively the Academic, Exhibitory and Con-

versational modes of speaking already described. The relative effect of each mode should be interpreted in terms of shift of opinion toward the favorable position since the Affirmative alone varied the mode of speaking.

TABLE III

Gross Shift in Opinion for Each Mode of Speaking After Discussion and After Rebuttal.

Mode	Voters	Audiences No.	Type	Shift of Opinion After Discussion To Aff.	To Neg.	Unch.	Shift of Opinion After Rebuttal To Aff.	To Neg.	Unch.
Acad.	217	7	Pythian	60	103	54	74	105	38
Exhib.	177	4	Pythian	55	72	50	71	70	36
Conv.	380	9	General	112	155	113	131	158	91
Acad.	317	9	Pyth.-Stud.	75	117	71	...	...	..
Exhib.	240	5	Pyth.-Stud.	71	101	68	...	...	..

TABLE IV

The following table gives the Shift-of-Opinon results of the use of each mode, in terms of *R*, *Ar*, and *Nr*. values for net shift of opinion. The results constitute criterion scores on scales ranging from plus 1 to minus 1 for each type of stimulation for *R;* and from *0* to *2*, for *Ar* and *Nr*.

TABLE IV

Measures of Attitude Before Discussion and of Net Shift After Discussion and After Rebuttal for Each Mode of Speaking.

Mode	Voters	Audiences No	Type	Before Discussion R.	Ar.	Nr.	After Discussion R.	Ar.	Nr.	After Rebuttal R.	Ar.	Nr.
Acad.	217	7	Pythian	.193	.700	.313	-.152	.553	.949	-.143	.682	.968
Exhib.	177	4	Pythian	.249	.814	.316	-.095	.625	.814	.006	.802	.791
Conv.	380	9	General	.100	.669	.474	-.113	.589	.816	-.071	.689	.832
Acad.	317	9	Pyth.-St.	.158	.656	.341	-.303	.473	1.079	....	...	...
Exhib.	240	5	Pyth.-St.	.221	.767	.325	-.125	.592	.842	....	...	...

It should be kept in mind that the measures given "Before Discussion" indicate variation in the status of opinion from an ideal standard of equally operating conditions while for "After Discussion"

and "After Rebuttal", the measures are applied to fluctuations in net shift of opinion from what would be true if the same standard applied.

For all modes "After Discussion", the *R* for shift of opinion is negative, reversing the *R* for status of opinion "Before Discussion". Preponderance of favorable influences before discussion were overbalanced by unfavorable influences during discussion.

Note that the least negative *R*, "After Discussion", is that for the Exhibitory mode. For the Pythian-Student groups at the foot of the column, "Exhib." has an advantage of .178 over "Acad." (.303—.125). If each one-hundredth is taken as a step on an *R*-scale of attitude-shift ranging from minus 1 to plus 1, this would be 17.8 scale steps of difference out of a possible 200 between the two modes.

Comparing again the two Pythian groups and the Conversational mode group, After Discussion, the Exhibitory mode has the most positive *R* (—.095). the highest *Ar* (0.625) and the lowest *Nr* (0.814); S. N. has the most negative *R* (—.152), the lowest *Ar* (0.553), and the highest *Nr* (0.949); and the Conversational mode has an intermediate position with an *R* of —0.113, an *Ar* of 0.589 and an *Nr* of 0.816. The Conversational mode bears a closer statistical relation in *R* and *Nr* to the Exhibitory mode than it does to the Academic mode, exactly in the manner of difference between the three types of speaking.

Rebuttal seems merely to widen the *R* differences between the modes of speaking, the Exhibitory mode succeeding in securing a positive net shift of (.006). The Conversational mode *R* (—.071) is almost exactly mid-way between the "Academic" *R* (—.143) and the "Exhibitory" *R* of .006. In terms of scale-points, Rebuttal increases the *R* value for Exhib. 10.1 points as compared with the 0.9 point increase for Acad.; and the Exhib. mode has the most positive gain in *Ar* (17.7), and the only decrease in *Nr* (2.3 scale points). Yet, the relationship between the modes, established by the Discussion, is left substantially the same.

The formulae then seem to express in a single statistical measure, any audience-reaction, so that the net effect of three different modes of speaking can be seen at a glance in terms of an absolute standard of zero. If several debates are held before audiences with the same speakers and similar subject-matter, any variation from the standard absolute value, as seen in shift of opinion, should represent determ-

inant bias of the audience. If similar audiences are used, variations in speaking mode can be measured as scale points from a standard of zero. Separate audiences may be compared in terms of variation from a standard of equally-operating conditions of influence.

TABLES VI AND VII

Another problem is to control the age and sex factors in the audience, since our text-writers feel that these factors must influence opinion-change in the audience. Fortunately, sex-age information is asked of the voter on the Woodward shift-of-opinion ballot. Due to the fact that there were so few women present during the experimental debates, comparison could not be made between the shifts of opinion of men as against those of the women. However, a tabulation was made of the age-distribution of specific types of opinion-shift in response to two different modes of speaking.

These tables for the "Exhibitory" mode and for the "Academic" mode each clearly indicate that the type and extent of shift of opinion for any mode or for any class of initial opinion are not a function of the age distribution since is an even distribution of shifted votes over the age intervals for each class of initial opinion. By the iron decree of the Editor, space will not permit inclusion of these tables, here. But inasmuch as Tables V and VI, though derived from another situation, demonstrate the same fact—namely, that differentiation in audience-response in accordance with the mode of speaking does not seem to be a function of age-distribution—the tables for the experimental modes may be justifiably omitted.

While there were not enough women in the experimental debates to permit comparison with the men over sufficient age-groups, in the next two tables, we analyze the reactions of 5776 citizens of Cleveland, or its vicinity, voting upon questions of public interest. The data were obtained from an examination of 8,180 ballots voted by members of 193 civic organizations in the course of debates by the University teams from November 1927 to April, 1931. Two thousand, four hundred and four ballots were found to have inadequate data as to sex and age; and these ballots had to be discarded. Fourteen different questions were used in the debates, and some sixty different speakers were involved in the discussions.

The data are grouped for each type of shift of opinion in age-intervals of five from thirteen years to seventy-two for men and to

sixty-two for women. Higher age-intervals contained too few voters for comparison. The total number of voters for each age-interval is contained at the foot of each column. The symbols (2), (1), (0), (-1), and (-2), represent respectively "More favorable than Before", "Favorable", "Undecided", "Unfavorable", and "More Unfavorable than Before". For example, "-1 to 0" represents the class of voters who are unfavorable before the debate to a given proposition and became undecided after the debate. The tables represent all possible types of shift of opinion in a given direction. The data are grouped so that the total "Affirmative" shift (shift to favorable), total "Negative" shift, and total number of Unchanged may appear for each interval. Age-intervals are made comparable by expressing each type of shift in opinion as a percentage of the total number of voters for that age-interval; percentages, then should be related to the number at the foot of each column, for translation back into integers. Tables VI and VII, for men and women respectively, are given together.

TABLE VI

Age Distribution of 4,289 Male Voters, for the Conversational Mode of Speaking.

Start Fin.	13 –17	18 –22	23 –27	28 –32	33 –37	38 –42	43 –47	48 –52	53 –57	58 –62	63 –67	68 –72
1 to 2	.205	.222	.291	.257	.344	.293	.313	.277	.276	.331	.313	.278
0 to 1	.105	.138	.128	.135	.084	.102	.097	.143	.148	.089	.075	.000
-1 to 1	.053	.042	.032	.034	.027	.044	.036	.018	.015	.019	.104	.111
-1 to 0	.027	.026	.018	.024	.022	.011	.011	.009	.009	.006	.000	.000
Aff. Shift	.388	.428	.470	.448	.477	.450	.457	.435	.448	.446	.493	.389
1 to 0	.064	.024	.039	.028	.020	.027	.030	.030	.000	.013	.030	.056
1 to -1	.127	.079	.034	.052	.029	.040	.047	.030	.044	.025	.030	.056
0 to -1	.105	.135	.110	.101	.113	.084	.091	.070	.059	.076	.060	.056
-1 to -2	.180	.146	.114	.138	.135	.190	.169	.230	.271	.280	.208	.111
Neg. Shift	.477	.384	.297	.320	.297	.341	.338	.361	.374	.395	.328	.278
1 to 1	.057	.070	.091	.101	.101	.077	.055	.094	.054	.038	.075	.111
0 to 0	.037	.045	.078	.054	.076	.067	.086	.049	.089	.057	.030	.167
-1 to -1	.040	.073	.064	.077	.049	.065	.064	.049	.034	.064	.075	.056
Unchanged	.134	.188	.233	.232	.226	.209	.205	.191	.177	.159	.179	.333
Total Vot.	704	617	438	466	407	522	361	329	203	157	67	18

TABLE VII

Age-Distribution of 1,487 Female Voters, for the Conversational Mode of Speaking.

Start Fin.	13 –17	18 –22	23 –27	28 –32	33 –37	38 –42	43 –47	48 –52	53 –57	58 –62	63 –67	68 –72
1 to 2	.185	.214	.207	.233	.174	.277	.131	.196	.304	.222		
0 to 1	.131	.126	.178	.117	.116	.193	.115	.179	.217	.278		
-1 to 1	.056	.036	.037	.033	.140	.133	.180	.036	.043	.000		
-1 to 0	.020	.011	.015	.017	.012	.012	.000	.018	.000	.000		
Aff. Shift	.392	.388	.437	.400	.442	.614	.426	.428	.565	.500		
1 to 0	.057	.025	.037	.100	.047	.000	.033	.000	.130	.000		
1 to -1	.107	.058	.026	.033	.080	.012	.000	.071	.000	.000		
0 to -1	.122	.143	.156	.167	.140	.133	.180	.232	.043	.056		
-1 to 2	.129	.195	.141	.158	.128	.072	.148	.089	.087	.388		
Neg. Shift	.416	.420	.363	.458	.395	.217	.361	.393	.261	.444		
1 to 1	.076	.077	.067	.067	.081	.048	.082	.036	.000	.056		
0 to 0	.046	.060	.081	.033	.035	.084	.049	.071	.130	.000		
-1 to -1	.070	.055	.052	.042	.047	.036	.082	.071	.043	.000		
Unch'd	.192	.192	.200	.142	.163	.169	.213	.179	.174	.056		
Total Vot.	541	364	135	120	86	83	61	56	23	18		

The preponderance of male voters is due to the fact that most of the debates occurred before organizations with a predominantly male membership.

Comparing the "Affirmative shift", "Negative shift", and "Unchanged", the percentage of voters who remained unchanged in each age group is smaller than the percentage of shift to Affirmative or shift to Negative. The percentage which remained unchanged in opinion in a given group appears to be a function of age or sex of the individual, since the relation is the same over all the age groups.

Similarly for each age group, the Affirmative Shift appears to exceed the Negative shift, with the exception of the 13-17 year group among the Males, and the first two lower age groups among the Females. The relation of Affirmative shift to Negative shift is approximately the same for each age group between the years of twenty-three and seventy-five, for both men and women.

Variation in percentage across the age-intervals for Affirmative

Shift, Negative shift and Unchanged is roughly within the same limits for men and women.

No type of opinion-shift indicates a tendency to shift in any particular age group. In nearly every instance, a percentage in a lower age group can be duplicated or approximated in some one of the higher age intervals, in every class of opinion change. For example, in the (1 to 2) class of opinion-change, for the Males, the 27.6 per cent found in the 53-57 age-interval is exceeded by the 29.1 per cent found in the 23-27 age-interval and this in turn is exceeded by the 33.1 per cent found in the 58-62 age-interval.

Across the age-intervals, the percentages fluctuate in both favorable and unfavorable directions in a haphazard and irregular manner, both for women and for men.

Audience-reaction does not seem to be a function of sex or age.

Tentative Conclusions

In summary then:

(1) The popular audience does apparently change opinion in response to student speakers, varying the response in exact relation to the mode of speaking. The ballot seems to be an adequate technique for recording actual change of opinion within the audience in response to student speakers. It, therefore, may be of possible use for experimental purposes to ascertain some of the elements of effective speaking in terms of audience-response to change in speaking mode. If so, it provides a laboratory method which can be used in the actual speech situation.

(2) Audience-reaction can be expressed in terms of variation from an absolute standard of zero, by means of statistical formulae discussed. Inference therefore can be made from comparisons of the reactions of different audiences, since they are all related to the same standard by statistical means. This means that audiences can be compared in terms of the same standard and data easily dealt with. The formulae permit determination of the homogeneity of audiences to be studied and the relative effectiveness of speakers.

(3) Sex and age factors in an audience can be controlled by the shift-of-opinion ballot. A study of the reactions of five thousand, seven hundred and seventy-six voters would indicate that shift of opinion is not a function of sex and age.

(4) The effect of Rebuttal on opinion shift in experimental work with the actual audience can be controlled by taking a vote

before rebuttal. Results obtained from an analysis of the reactions of nine hundred and thirty-seven voters would indicate that Rebuttal leaves the great mass of voters Unchanged in the opinion established by the Discussion, while the Discussion proper causes the great mass of people to shift opinion.

These inferences are necessarily tentative depending upon corroboration from data obtained by others who may wish to use the shift-of-opinion ballot for experimental study of other audiences in other parts of the country.

It was in the hope that some inquiring mind might be encouraged to conduct such research that these problems have been suggested here, and tentative solutions offered. Inasmuch as the shift-of-opinion ballot can be employed most effectively in the speech situation, the teacher of Speech is more likely to make advantageous use of it as an experimental method than either the sociologist or the psychologist.

PRESUMPTION IN THE INTRODUCTION TO THE ARGUMENTATIVE SPEECH

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Although the term presumption is often found in law, very little mention of it is made in speech texts. This does not mean, however, that speakers outside the legal field do not employ presumption. Probably all speakers, particularly those who wish to secure audience conviction, find it a useful tool although they usually refer to it in different terms. Boviet and Black define presumption as the rule of law that courts and judges shall draw a particular inference from a particular fact or from particular evidence unless and until the truth of such inference is disproved. For example, in American law a man is innocent until the truth of such an inference is disproved. The burden of proving guilt is the opposite of the presumption and rests on the state. In debate, the burden of proof is said to be with the affirmative which usually opposes the existing conditions. That is, propositions are ordinarily worded so that the affirmative advocates a change. Thus, it would seem that in general the negative enjoys the advantage of a favorable presumption while the affirmative

faces the necessity of creating one if it desires this aid in discharging its burdens of proof. Obviously, the task should be begun at the earliest opportunity, which is in the introduction. How can this favorable inference be secured?

Writers in the field of speech are pretty generally agreed that the functions of an introduction are:

1. To gain and hold the attention of an audience.
2. To make whatever preliminary explanation is necessary to increase audience understanding of the discussion.
3. To create a favorable audience attitude toward the speaker and toward his subject.

This article does not presume to discuss the purposes of an introduction. Many excellent chapters in our speech texts have dealt very fully with that subject. The writer's object is merely to point out briefly ways in which presumption may be used to aid in furthering these objectives.

I believe it is agreed that argumentative material should be excluded from an introduction. This does not mean that one cannot convince or persuade in the introduction. It merely means that as the issues do not appear until the close of the introduction, no argument could logically be presented prior to that time. Moreover, audiences are not yet ready for the arguments. They may not understand the real issues involved. They may have convictions which are so strong that an abrupt use of argument might so antagonize them as to preclude the possibility of a fair hearing.

In many cases, presumption is no more than a tactful way of saying a thing. The two statements, "You are not as fat and awkward as you used to be" and "You are much more slender and graceful than when I last saw you" may mean the same thing but what a different effect they may produce.

There are two kinds of probable presumptions, those created in favor of the speaker and those created in favor of the speaker's subject matter. This article discusses only the latter type. Let us deal with it in the order in which Foster in his text *Argumentation and Debating*, takes up the steps of an introduction. The illustrations used herewith were gathered from Pacific Forensic League Debates in 1931-32. They are not offered as models but merely as examples of current practices.

Immediate cause for discussion. The audience may not realize why it should be interested, although in general, a question in which the reason for audience interest is not obvious should be avoided. There are, however, certain types of questions such as the ones "Resolved that Mussolini has been a benefit to Italy" and "Resolved that Gandhi has been a benefit to India" in which the reason for more than casual concern is not at once apparent to the audience. Their interest in the question can be so stated as to build a presumption for or against the issue under discussion. For example, a negative presumption unfavorable to Gandhi could be created by the statement that the bitter experiences of the world war have made Americans view with concern any revolutionary movement throughout the world which might eventually plunge America into another conflict; that interest in Gandhi is not alone a political one for at a time of world depression he says, "We (India) must boycott all foreign goods whether French, British, or American". The alleged fact that Gandhi advocates withdrawing 300,000,000 people from the world market and in other ways directly and indirectly adding to American economic distress is not used as an argument to prove that he is a detriment to India but to place him in an unfavorable light before the audience and thus make it more ready to accept subsequent indictments of Gandhi and his methods. On the other side, a team pointed out that "the world is always thrilled by a nation's struggle for liberty; that Americans should be particularly interested in the question for India and Gandhi are fighting the same country that we gained our independence from only 150 years ago." They compared Gandhi to Washington, Gandhi's defiance of the British salt tax to the Colonists' defiance of the British tea tax and compared the Boston massacre to the Amritsar massacre. In fact, they built a very careful analogy between India's and our own struggle for independence. All of which certainly did not prove that Gandhi was a benefit to India but it did gain the sympathetic hearing of an American audience. I know that this introduction did materially influence the audience and judges in this particular debate.

A very effective presumption was built against Mussolini several years ago by using a statement from one of his late speeches which if taken literally seemed to fore-shadow an Italian war of conquest in the near future. That was sufficient to condemn him in the eyes of most listeners and thus greatly simplified the task of the

affirmative. The negative team from that school appealed to the universal admiration for a strong leader and pointed out a resemblance between Mussolini and Theodore Roosevelt.

Sometimes the questions are so worded that the presumption favors the affirmative. Here, the negative faces an almost impossible task for the affirmative enjoys a combination of (1) an inherently favorable presumption, (2) the opportunity of embedding that presumption so deeply in the audience mind that the other side has difficulty in securing an unbiased hearing, (3) a final rebuttal, and (4) the advantage accruing to the fact that affirmative teams are usually debating on their home platform. The question, "Resolved that the divorce laws of the state of Nevada should be condemned" which was used extensively on the Pacific Coast this year presents the above difficulty. During the past season, the writer heard 25 debates on this question, and in all but one case the audience presumption clearly favored the affirmative. It is easy to see then how important and necessary it is to gain a favorable audience attitude prior to the discussion. Affirmative teams on this question used the following material to arouse sympathetic interest:

1 Reno's and Nevada's unsavory reputation which some traced back as far as the Johnson-Jeffries fight.
2 Appeals for the American home and the institution of marriage with the idea (although not expressed) planted in the minds of the audience that the home, the family, and marriage were in jeopardy.

Negative teams generally opened their case using one or more of the following methods:

1 Similar statements of regard for the home and marriage. (Many of these, however, unfortunately injected the negative suggestion that in some way or other these were menaced.)
2 An admission that sentiment generally was antagonistic toward the Nevada laws and a frank appeal for an unprejudiced hearing.
3 Calling attention to changing ideals and more liberal attitudes.

Origin and history of question. This is the part which should prepare audience understanding and it offers many opportunities for

creating a favorable attitude. In one case, the negative of the question, "Resolved that Gandhi has been a benefit to India" traced the history of India and the life of Gandhi, pointing out the miserable conditions in early India, the countless invasions, wealth in the hands of a few princes, etc., and then discussed the benefits accruing to English rule. In many cases this overlapped the main argument that the British rule was beneficial and that as Gandhi was trying to drive them out, he was detrimental. In other cases it was used as a foundation for this argument. The affirmative also generally spent several minutes on early Indian history, pointing out India's contributions to the world literature, art, science, language and religion, and her wealth, mentioned by early writers and sought by early explorers and adventurers. They contrasted this with her present poverty and her complete loss of the things which had once made her great. This was used as a foundation for the later argument, that one who fought for the eviction of the British and the return of the old order was certainly a benefit to India. One team even went so far as to use the term "British" on the affirmative and "English" on the negative for it was felt on the affirmative that the term "British" was somehow connected with red coats and early American history and therefore repugnant to Americans.

In the Nevada divorce law question, one team built an affirmative presumption in its origin and history by tracing the history of marriage and pointing out the failure of all but the monogamous form, the veiled suggestion being that the opposition in defending the Nevada divorce laws was aiming a blow at monogamic marriage. A typical negative presumption revolved around a tracing of the early American ideal of personal liberty and the growth of this ideal until the church and state had both recently adopted a more lenient attitude toward divorce.

An excellent method of building presumption in the origin and history is to trace the steps previously taken and show that they lead up to but one logical conclusion, the one, of course, which you are advocating. This method was admirably worked out by one team debating the question of universal disarmament. It traced the history of armaments and the past attempts to eliminate war until it seemed obvious from their exposition that the only logical and even possible future step was disarmament.

One team used this method very effectively in building a pre-

sumption in favor of giving labor one-third representation on the board of directors. A high school team in the state used it to advantage in the question of compulsory unemployment insurance. This team traced the history of social insurance and the past attempts to alleviate the ills of unemployment and although they went no farther in their introduction it was obvious from the evidence presented that unemployment insurance was the next logical step in social insurance and the only feasible solution of the unemployment problem. In one case a judge (One of the outstanding attorneys of the State) when asked what he had based his decision upon replied, "The opening remarks of the first speaker entirely convinced me". The expository material in the affirmative introduction had caught him unaware and convinced him before the real argument was even presented. This is one of the chief advantages in an introductory presumption. It gets in its work without any evident attempt at conviction by the speaker. It avoids the problem of how to convince people who become stubborn when they realize an attempt is being made to convince them.

It is possible, of course, to create presumption in the definition of terms and in the handling of waived, irrelevant, and admitted matter, but the opportunity occurs less often. The writer has on file the methods used by various teams to gain a favorable hearing on both sides of most of the questions used in recent years on the Pacific Coast. Some seek only to gain a fair hearing for themselves. Some go so far as to attempt to prevent an unprejudiced hearing for the opposition. If debaters merely wish to present the evidence to the best of their ability and then permit the audience or judges to decide on the merits of the evidence presented, then it would seem that the first method is sufficient, but if debaters are striving for conviction as a practical preparation for life efforts in the fields of law, advertising, salesmanship, in fact most businesses and professions, then it would seem that they are justified in using every honorable resource at their command to secure that conviction even though by so doing they may have made the opposition's task of securing an unprejudiced hearing a difficult one.

Do we ever criticize the minister because he never willingly gives the devil a chance? However, in debate the other side generally has the same opportunity to create a presumption favorable to its case. It seems to the writer then that presumption is an ethical and effective speech weapon, particularly when conviction is desired.

EDITORIALS

SPEECH IN THE DAY OF DEPRESSION

Unquestionably these are days of reassessment and reappraisal everywhere in education; they are days of salary cuts, staff reductions, and curriculum curtailments. One hears tales of teachers in various fields who have lost their positions and of departments which have been summarily discontinued. It is almost inevitable that instructors who are discharged or whose work is seriously interfered with should feel that they have been singled out and made the victims of gross injustice. It matters little whether such teachers are giving instruction in mathematics, history, social science, or speech. Each is likely to be convinced that the fates have dealt harshly with him in particular.

While we do not wish foolishly to play the ostrich and lull ourselves into a false sense of security in the face of danger, we do believe that workers in speech should be slow to generalize from their individual experience or from the happenings in one school system or in one college. We feel that we should proceed cautiously to conclusions, making the finding of the facts an indispensable prerequisite to any concerted action by our Association or its officers.

We should not forget that there are always many obscure and subtle factors which in a time of stress determine the distribution among individuals and departments of the withering effects of such drastic economy programs as are now under weigh in schools and colleges. In any given case before deciding whether or not injustice has been done, we should ask ourselves such questions as: How well established was the given subject in the curriculum? How competent were those teaching the subject in the institution concerned? How much good will for themselves and for their subject had the teachers been able to put into the bank against these lean years?

We may well doubt the wisdom of telling or attempting to tell school administrators how they shall work out the economies which

they are compelled to make. It is a very serious error to assume that the situation is bad everywhere because it is demonstrably bad somewhere. It is always a mistake to deal in a general way with specific cases about which we have little or no accurate information. Our first objective should be to study each case as it arises.

Doubtless there have been and will be instances of gross personal and professional injustice. It is equally obvious that in other cases the individuals and the departments which have been afflicted are not wholly unlike the prisoner at the bar who began to get nervous during the prosecuting attorney's opening remarks to the jury. His counsel leaned over to him and whispered reassuringly, "Don't worry, I'll see that you get justice." "That," replied the prisoner, "is just what I am beginning to be afraid of!" While we do not mean to treat this serious subject in a tone of unbecoming levity, it does seem to us that we should first make sure that there has been a calamity and then seek to determine its causes and extent before we start out on a relief expedition. Certainly the appointment of a committee for the gathering of information might be helpful.

A SPEECH REQUIREMENT FOR ALL TEACHERS

Even in depression days, we occasionally find cause for rejoicing. An instance in point is the recent action of several college and university faculties making candidacy for a teacher's certificate in any subject contingent upon passing an attainment test in speech or earning satisfactory grades in elementary speech courses. The rather obvious facts are being realized that speech is the principal tool of the instructor in every classroom and that the preparation of teachers, if it is to be satisfactory, must include such training as will guarantee a reasonable degree of proficiency in the use of speech.

Teachers' harsh, raspy, nasal, and unpleasant voices inevitably reflect themselves in unhappy and inefficient working tensions in the classroom from the elementary grades to the graduate school. Inability to attract and hold attention, incapacity for clarity in presentation, incompetence in the handling of persuasive techniques—such shortcomings limit the usefulness of any teacher. Bad speech habits picked up by pupils through unconscious imitation of faulty speech on the part of the teacher may offset and cancel all the positive virtues and

capabilities of an instructor. We believe that we are nearing the day when every school or college granting teaching credentials to its graduates will withhold them from those whose inferior speech unfits them for the task of classroom instruction.

OUTSIDERS LOOKING IN

It is notable and at times disquieting that so much of the significant scholarly work in the field of Speech is done by scientists outside our own professional ranks. To men like D. C. Miller, Harvey Fletcher, V. E. Negus, and Sir Richard Paget we are all deeply indebted. We accept their contributions in a spirit of gratitude and humility. However, we suspect that a bit of reciprocity now and then might do no harm to even such eminent contributors, and, we suffer at times from the ignorant comments made by distinguished outsiders who have not taken the trouble to inform themselves about developments within the field of speech and yet express themselves in dogmatic *ex cathedra* ukases as to what we are doing, what we are failing to do, and what we should be doing. Their *ipse dixits* are published in the daily press, in periodicals popular and scientific, and are broadcast over national radio hook-ups, usually without any touch of the saving grace of humility manifested in an appropriate "it seems to me" or "in my humble opinion," which might make the criticism more palatable. We have always been the victims of the perniciously fallacious reasoning that since everybody speaks, everybody is an authority on speech.

Too often teachers of speech who live in an atmosphere calculated to develop within them a feeling of professional insecurity and inferiority, either allow these unflattering estimates of their profession to go wholly unchallenged or meekly accept the burden of proof thrust upon them by the unsupported assertions of their critics.

If we are to maintain our self-respect, the least we can do is to demand that those who bring an indictment against us shall bear the burden of proving the charge. When an embattled teacher of speech stands his ground and fires a shot in defense of his rights, it is sometimes surprising how far the detonation can be heard. Some of us should refuse to accept the disparaging estimates which the uninformed place upon our value and demand a fair hearing and reason-

able treatment. It is not our intention here to furnish a bill of particulars against anyone. However, if necessary, we can, like Koko, prepare a litle list of offenders with names, dates, and specific misdemeanors. All we are disposed to do at the moment is to utter a caveat to all and sundry that we are growing a little weary of some outsiders' unsolicited and meddlesome attempts to set our house in order.

VALE ATQUE AVE!

With the publication of this issue the editorship of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL passes from our hands into those of our able successor, Professor Hoyt H. Hudson of Princeton, who for the past six years has served as Review Editor. For three years we have labored in the high tradition instituted and carried forward by O'Neill, Woolbert, Dolman, and Hunt. The ark of the covenant now moves Eastward again.

For eighteen years THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL has been the official organ of our National Association. Without the JOURNAL the Association could not conceivably have developed into the powerful organization which it now is. We are proud to have had some small share in shaping and using this instrument of progress.

We terminate our editorship with sincere gratitude to the Association for the privilege which has been ours. Editing a professional journal is not always an easy task, but it is one rich in compensations for the hard work and the difficulties which it entails. No one can serve as editor of such a publication for any length of time without learning many valuable lessons as to the personnel and the program of the Association. It should go without saying that we are conscious of having made many mistakes; all we can urge in extenuation is that they have been unintentional. Doubtless we have returned manuscripts which we ought to have published, and have published others which we ought to have returned. With notably few exceptions, the charity and forebearance of disappointed would-be contributors have made the burden of the editorship tolerable when otherwise it might not have been so.

Through the three year period, we think we have discerned, broadly speaking, a definite improvement in the average quality of the manuscripts submitted for publication. For this, of course, we

can lay no unction to our own soul, but we have noted it with satisfaction. Looking back over Volumes XVI, XVII, and XVIII, we believe that the association may feel a genuine pride in most of the material which we have published. We believe that it will safely stand comparison with the contents of other similar professional journals which have come from the presses during the same period.

To the members of the staff who have worked unremittingly and faithfully with us we express our deep and abiding appreciation. We feel a very special sense of obligation to Professors Ewbank and Densmore, the Executive Secretaries, whose devoted and intelligent efforts during our editorship have kept the JOURNAL financially solvent through these trying days. We bespeak for the incoming editor and his staff a continuation of that support of the Association membership which has made our work possible. We hope that the next three years will bring to them experiences even more delightful than we have had. We know that they will sustain and enhance the splendid traditions of the JOURNAL. Farewell, and hail!

THE FORUM

THE DIRECT CLASH DEBATE PLAN

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

During the debate season of 1931-1932, debate teams representing Wake Forest College, Ashville Teachers College, the University of Tennessee, and North Carolina State College introduced a new plan of debating. This new form—called the Direct Clash debate—is intended not to supplant the present standard debate but to give variety and greater interest to the forensic program of the season and to give opportunity for training not provided for at present.

During the past months, numerous requests have been received for copies of the rules. Debate directors, both in secondary schools and in colleges and universities, have agreed to experiment with this new plan in one or more debates during the 1932-1933 season, report its effectiveness, and suggest changes in the rules before publication in their final form. It is hoped that the readers of this JOURNAL will find it desirable to use the Direct Clash debate in one or more inter-school debates, will report on its effectiveness, and will suggest any necessary changes.

Rules for the Direct Clash Debate

A. *Number on each team.*

No more than five and no fewer than two debaters should compose each team. Unless so desired by the debate directors, the speakers need not speak in any fixed order, but no speaker may speak twice in succession and no speaker may initiate more than one successive clash. The numbers on the teams may vary—a two debater team may meet a five, four, three, or two debater team, thus allowing the visiting team to limit the expense of travel and the home team to give more students an opportunity to debate. Or, by agreement, an equal number may debate on the two sides.

B. *Decision or non-decision debate.*

A novel method of scoring, designed partly to arouse audience interest, is explained in Sections E and G. But only one change in procedure need be made to have either a non-decision or an audience-vote debate. Many of the debates already held under the Direct Clash debate plan have been non-decision debates.

C. *The Proposition for Debate.*

The same type of proposition may be used that is used in standard debates. Or less extended and more specific queries may be used.

D. *Preliminary Period of Definition and Analysis.*

A speaker on the affirmative has either 5 or 8 minutes to open the debate. If he chooses the 5 minute period, his duty shall be to define the terms and to explain, in general, the "plan" proposed by the affirmative if one is necessary. A speaker on the negative shall then reply in a speech of equal length, in which he shall accept, deny, or qualify the affirmative's analysis. Or the negative speaker may use his time to question the affirmative speaker concerning his definition of the question or the details of his plan.

If the affirmative speaker chooses the 8 minute opening speech, he must also present what the affirmative believe to be the issues of the debate. The negative speaker then has 8 minutes to reply, in which he may indicate the issues which the negative accept for clash and those which they admit or concerning which they express essential agreement with the affirmative. The debate must then be limited to those issues upon which there is a disagreement. If it chances that the teams clash on only one issue, that one issue must be subdivided into its constituent parts and these become the "issues".

By agreement before the debate, the two teams may accept either the 5 or 8 minute opening speeches. (If both are used during the year, please report which you find more satisfactory.)

E. *The First Clash.*

A speaker on the affirmative has an opening speech of 3 (or possibly 4) minutes to present for his side an issue which he believes to be essential to proving the proposition. This "issue" need not be the broad general issue such as Need-for-a-change or Workability which are so convenient for the 8, 10, or 13 minute speeches of our standard debate form. The issue here presented may possibly be a

major sub-issue of these general issues. But before the debate begins, the judge or judges are instructed to penalize heavily a team presenting petty or obscure points which are unimportant in proving the proposition.

The first speaker on the negative must answer the specific argument advanced by the first affirmative. His speech, and each of the speeches in the following clash, must not exceed 2 minutes. (Practice with this form will demonstrate that this time will usually be adequate.) The speaker must not evade the issue or turn to another issue unless he can show that the two issues are essentially the same.

The second affirmative must then answer directly the first negative and so on until each side has spoken three times. The affirmative then has 2 minutes to close and summarize. The maximum debate time, therefore, is 15 minutes for each clash—one 3 minute speech and six 2 minute speeches.

If three judges are used, they should be seated together, the one in the center acting as spokesman. At the end of each speech during the clash, after the first speech by the affirmative and the first by the negative, the chairman of the debate shall allow a pause until the spokesman of the judging committee signals that the clash is to continue. If at any time after the first two speeches, a majority of the judging committee decide that the speaker who has just finished has replied weakly to the preceding speech of the opposition, or has dodged the issue, or has shifted ground without showing cause, or, in general, has failed to answer the previous speech with one equally strong, the spokesman of the judging committee (or the expert judge if only one is used) shall declare the clash at an end and shall award one point to that side whose opponent failed to reply satisfactory. The spokesman of the judging committee shall state in not more than 3 or 4 sentences the opinion of the majority of the judges.

Before the debate begins, the judges should be urged to stop a clash as soon as one side fails to reply satisfactorily. They must understand that the effectiveness of the debate depends upon their doing so. (Note that in the Direct Clash debate plan the task of the judge—and the audience—in following one issue which is "out in the open" is relatively simple compared with the task of the judge in the standard debate in which he is *supposed* to follow often as

many as four or five issues which are discussed, dropped, and taken up at irregular intervals throughout a discussion of from seventy to ninety minutes in length. The Direct Clash debate, once understood, should make for more accurate judging.)

If, however, the clash is rather even, it may be allowed to run the full 7 speeches. At the close, the judges give their decision on the merits of the debating. A virtual tie shall be decided against the initiating team since they had the advantage of choice of issue, both opening and closing speech, and number of speeches. Also, the judges should be instructed to vote against any team presenting an insignificant issue. They will naturally tend to penalize a team presenting issues which seem less vital to proving the proposition than the issues presented by the opposition. If the debate directors desire, the judges may be instructed to do so.

F. The procedure described in E is then repeated, except that the negative now initiates the issue, accepts the burden, and if the clash goes the maximum time, closes. No issue may be initiated twice in one debate. (As has already been explained, if only one major issue is under dispute, the sub-division of that issue becomes the issue.)

G. The affirmative and negative alternate in initiating issues until one side has won three clashes. That side is then the winner of the debate. If, however, the count becomes 2 to 2, a team must win two consecutive clashes—as in tennis when the score is deuce. By agreement the debate may be called a tie at 3-3 or 4-4, thus preventing the hair-splitting decisions now necessary. If a decision is imperative, as in a league or tournament debate, either the first team winning 4 clashes shall be called winner or the judges may be asked at 3-3 or 4-4 to give a decision on general platform skill.

If the debate is non-decision, there will of course be no judging committee. Each side shall present 2 or 3 issues each (depending on the desire of the debate directors.) Each clash shall go the full seven speeches.

If an audience-vote is desired, the audience may vote its convictions concerning the proposition both before and after the debate to show shift in opinion. Or the members of the audience may vote to determine which team won each clash. That team which receives the most audience votes shall become the winner of each particular clash, and that team which wins a majority of the clashes shall be declared victor of the debate.

H. *Comments and Suggested Variations in the Rules.*

1. Speakers shall speak from near the center of the platform, in their best speaking manner.
2. Obviously, most of the speaking must be extemporaneous or even impromptu. The coach-made speech is impossible.
3. The chairman should be instructed to keep the debate moving with promptness and vigor.
4. If possible, time-keepers should have stop-watches. One-half minute warnings are usually best.
5. The following changes in the rules have been suggested. These and others may be tried.
   a. The time of the speeches in each clash shall be lengthened and the number reduced. Practice will probably demonstrate that the debaters will soon be able to adjust themselves to the shorter speeches with profit to themselves and the audience. But some coaches who have used the Direct Clash debate believe that there should be one 4 minute speech and four 3 minute speeches to each clash.
   b. As soon as the spokesman of the judging committee gives the signal that any clash is to continue, the member of the team about to speak shall be allowed to ask the preceding speaker from one to three questions which must be answered by the speaker without delay, the time used in reply not to be taken from the 2 minute periods allotted each speaker. This innovation, some believe, will introduce some of the training values of the Oregon Plan.
   c. At the end of each of the debates, or at the end of each clash, in a non-decision or audience vote debate, the members of the audience shall be allowed to question in alternating order the members of each team.
6. The Direct Clash debate may also be used in a one-man-per-side debate before luncheon clubs, school assembly programs, etc.

I. *Your Report on the Direct Clash Debate.*

Please report your opinion of this debate form after having used it in actual competition, inter-school preferred. The future of de-

bating will be advanced by the introduction of worthwhile, new forms, and you have an opportunity to do valuable pioneering work in experimenting with and helping to perfect this new form. Of special interest will be the answers to the following questions:

1. Do the debaters like the Direct Clash debate?
2. Does the audience prefer it to the standard form? (If possible, ask the audience to ballot.)
3. What are its virtues?
4. Does it develop a new technique of debating?
5. What are its defects?
6. Did you use any of the changes suggested in H, 5? With what results?
7. What changes should be made in the final rules? Why?

Address all reports to EDWIN H. PAGET, *North Carolina State College*, Raleigh, North Carolina.

NON-DECISION DEBATES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

The Marquette Conference, organized in 1929, among six of the Catholic high schools of Milwaukee, has had three seasons of debating. It has tried in succession the three judge debate, the critic judge debate and the non-decision debate. At the conclusion of a season of three judge debating the Conference was unanimous in favor of trying a year of critic judging. Even in so small a group the securing of judges for each debate proved a matter of difficulty, especially for afternoon debates. Schools quarreled over prospective judges and delayed returning lists. Judges were unresponsive. The decisions evidenced all the admitted weaknesses of the system.

Critic judging proved more satisfactory despite its expense. It appeared, however, that there was a growing tendency to emphasize decisions rather than the educative values of forensics. Before several of the debates the debaters were in a state of partial hysteria. Hard feelings developed between several schools.

The non-decision season of 1932 was frankly experimental. At its conclusion I sent a letter to each coach asking: 1. What do you think of non-decision debates? Would you care for another year

of them? 2. What do your debaters think of them? 3. What do your audiences think of them?

The small number of schools involved precludes the possibility of satisfactory statistical generalization. While the findings, therefore, must remain at best suggestive, they raise grave doubts as to whether the non-decision debate is suitable for the high school, and they may serve to stimulate further study of the problem against a broader background.

Three of the six coaches favored a return to decision debating. One expressed no preference. Another felt that it might be well to try a second year of non-decision debating, provided that after the debate the audience or a critical group were given an opportunity to express opinions. The remaining coach preferred the non-decision debate.

All coaches conceded that non-decision debating resulted in a loss of debater interest. Several noted that this loss of interest increased as the season progressed. Other criticisms against the non-decision debate were: the audience lacked interest; the debaters lost valuable criticism; they lost an opportunity for training in sportsmanship; they did not grow accustomed to having their work judged; they lost a strong motive for research; they grew careless on the platform.

High points in favor of non-decision debates were as follows: Non-decision debates eliminated unsatisfactory systems of judging and the trouble and expense of securing judges; relieved the coach and debaters of nervous tension; prevented the coach from doing all the work; did away with scouting and eliminated hard feelings between schools; emphasized proper debate values; made possible larger schedules and allowed coaches to use more debaters.

The comments of the coaches indicate clearly that the problem is two-sided. The following is typical:

> "I am not in favor of continuing non-decision debates, although I think they have some very good points in their favor—they relieve both coach and debaters of anxiety and nervous tension; they stress debating for its own sake rather than for the sake of winning; they do away with the necessity of finding competent judges, and they tend to lessen unhealthy rivalry between schools. But these good points are outweighed by the following: The debaters and audience lack interest and enthu-

siasm. In fact, it is hard to get an audience for a non-decision debate. The debaters miss the excellent criticisms they would receive from a competent critic judge. They lose the fine training in sportsmanship which teaches them how to take a defeat as well as a victory."

In three schools the debaters were unanimous in favor of decision debates. The opinion in the remaining three was divided as follows: in one 5-1, in another 7-2, in another 8-4, all favorable to decision debating. The same debate coach who "would as willingly enter into another season of non-decision as decision debates", said:

"My debates are heartily in favor of decision debates and are constantly pleading for them for next year."

The debaters noted that non-decision debating destroys their incentive for work, makes them careless on the platform, causes a loss of student interest, thereby reducing the size of the audience, making debating a less desirable thing in the eyes of the debaters. It would seem, from constantly repeated comments, that for the high school debater the chief pleasure of debating comes from contest for a decision. Many of the debaters felt that when the decision, particularly the critic's decision, was lacking to a debate, their development in debate ceased.

In favor of non-decision debates the following points were made by debaters: Non-decision debates offer platform experience without the tensions that accompany decision debates, and as a result the debaters were freer, with discussion that was friendly and sincere. Then, too, non-decision debates do not produce too many disappointments, especially for weak teams and inexperienced debaters.

It might be well to let some of the debaters speak for themselves:

"Practically, a non-decision debate is very similar to a regulation, timed basketball game played in a gymnasium without any baskets."

"I noticed no satisfaction expressed either among the student body or among the debaters. The audiences at these debates were always very small, with the exception of the audience attending the first debate. A remark frequently overheard after a debate was, 'If all the rest of the debates are non-decision, you won't find me in the audience again'. After debating at one of the high schools we overheard their debate coach say, 'I would

rather lose a decision debate than participate in a non-decision debate'."

"Last year the question for debate was, if anything, less interesting than the current question, yet it was always possible to attract a large crowd to hear the decision given. This year, however, the debaters often spoke before half a dozen listeners."

"There is less incentive to work when no decision is at stake. Debaters do better when they know that judges are present and that a decision or vote by the audience is involved. One enters with the feeling that he doesn't care."

"Critic judges would see things which an instructor might overlook. A non-decision debate eliminates this possibility."

"Non-decision debating gives the inexperienced debater more confidence and more of a chance. Less worry, no fear of the judges and their criticisms to distract him. He need not fear that he might cause the team to lose—even the seasoned debater is more at ease."

The Conference audiences were not in favor of non-decision debating. One of the coaches who felt that the season of non-decision debating had been moderately successful complains, "I did not succeed in working up sufficient audience interest." Another coach failed to discover a single person in his student body in favor of non-decision debating. He consulted twenty-nine faculty members. Twenty-seven favored decision debates. Out of sixty persons consulted in another school, fifty-seven preferred decision debates. The coach states that general comments were: "Debates this year were below par." "They lacked pep." "Without a decision there is something lacking after the debate."

In another school the coach submitted the question to a speech class of twenty-eight. Twenty-five were opposed to non-decision debates, one favored them and two argued that there were advantages in both systems. A fourth coach says, "The students were practically unanimous in declaring themselves in favor of a decision."

Another coach sought the opinion of thirty high school Juniors. Seventeen favored decision debates and thirteen non-decision. Twenty-one favored audience criticism of some kind after the debate.

Another coach finds much opposition to non-decision debates:

"A student body always wants somebody to win. It wants victory. With non-decision debating faculty and student inter-

est is apt to lag just as it would should athletics be made non-competitive."

The general complaint noted in specific comments made by audience members was that once the game element was taken out debating lost most of its interest. Almost equally as general was the charge that non-decision debating made for poor preparation and careless delivery. Numerous complaints are made that when the decision is lacking the debaters no longer try. One student notes that the debaters do many things which they would hesitate to do if a critic judge were present. He complains particularly about the poor sportsmanship in non-decision debate. According to the comments the second non-decision debate on a subject is an especially dull affair.

The non-decision debate is preferred by several because, according to them, it eliminates unpleasant rivalry between schools. One member notes that he dislikes decisions because they frequently reverse his own opinion.

The comment of one student is interesting and typical.

> "A person immediately notices, when attending one of these so-called 'battles', that the audience is very limited, as compared to the crowded auditoriums of the 1930-31 season. I recall that debate between ——— and ——— for the final cup. The speakers were able to hold everyone to an exaggerated silence, to hold them at the tips of their fingers, and make them realize that 'chain stores' were detrimental to the best interests of the American public. I remember how crowded the auditorium was that afternoon. I can still hear the loud shouting and cheering, which the students, in their eagerness to find the victors of the season, expelled.
>
> "But, all this has passed. The crowds are small, the cheering scant and it is hardly audible. There is a loss of interest, because of poorer arguments, none of those explosive and roof-raising rebuttals, and no real hard work because the debaters realize that they will receive no reward for their efforts."

WILLIAM M. LAMERS,
Marquette University, Milwaukee.

A WORD FOR HIGH SCHOOL DEBATERS

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

It was a genuine pleasure last evening for me to read your editorial on page 456 of the June, 1932, issue of The Quarterly Journal of Speech—"The Quality of High School Debating."

It has been my privilege for the past six years to hold the position of chairman of the N. U. E. A. Committee on Debate Materials and Interstate Cooperation—as you are aware. During those years (as well as many years before this committee was formed) I have watched with pleasure the development of high school debaters throughout the country. It is gratifying indeed to see that The Quarterly Journal of Speech is now carrying such splendid editorials in refutation to the opinion that is often voiced—namely, that high school youngsters are completely ignorant of the topics they are discussing.

Indeed, I am convinced that some of the most effective debating in the nation in the past three or four years has been presented by high school debaters. The thousands of individuals throughout the country who were privileged to hear the final debate, for instance, over the Columbia network released from Sioux City, Iowa, last May, in the national high school finals, I am sure will agree. Not only the final debate in this national series displayed every evidence that the young men and young women participating in that keen competition were not mere parrots mechanically reciting memorized speeches, but numerous other debates in that tournament gave evidence of deep thinking.

Again, in behalf of my co-workers on the N.U.E.A. Committee and debate officials throughout the entire country, I wish to express our appreciation for this editorial.

T.M. BEAIRD, *University of Oklahoma,*
Chairman, N.U.E.A. Debate Committee.

THE BEGINNING COURSE

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Your editorial "The Beginning Course" in the June Quarterly Journal cheered me mightily. When at my invitation Professor Bassett explained the California report at the Junior College Conference

in Detroit, the reaction of those present was one of perplexity. No more basic courses! —teaching of the content of essays or of poetry instead! It seemed difficult to believe that a group of speech teachers could sign such a report. The junior college people present from California explained that it was an effort to distinguish true college work from semi-professional courses in dramatics and allied fields which, perhaps due to the Hollywood influence, have had a phenomenal growth in California junior colleges.

Those present from Missouri (we all were, more or less), from Ohio, and from Michigan agreed that no such situation obtained in their states; and my contacts with the Junior College National Honorary Forensic Society and the results of the speech survey (Q. J. of Speech, April, 1931) bear out their contention that in general junior colleges endeavor to duplicate in quality and kind the first two years work of leading nearby universities. For example, at Grand Rapids we offer a three hour sophomore course for those entering our state university, and a two hour freshman course for those entering other nearby universities with similar curricula. Standardization would thus be a boon to us in junior colleges—but we don't want "standardization" to destroy the basic course entirely.

Five years ago but a single section was devoted to speech in all the district meetings of the Michigan Education Association. This year there is a speech section in every district of the state—something which cannot be said of English, of history, or of science. Further, the subjects discussed at these sections show an interest not in mere contests, but in the whole program of speech education. With speech thus being brought to all school levels, are we willing to destroy the very nucleus of speech instruction—the basic college course?

ROLLAND SHACKSON,
Grand Rapids Junior College.

CONCERTED READING

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Concerted reading has become not uncommon in the United States following the lead of Miss Gullan in England. The University of Colorado was among the first groups in this country to try this form of artistic rendition—perhaps it was the very first—in a dramatic performance of Rossetti's *Sister Helen* in January, 1926.

Under the direction of Mabel Smith Reynolds a small chorus gave the refrains of the ballad, securing interestingly various effects from the repeated words.

Since that time Mrs. Reynolds has used concerted reading to a considerable extent as a class exercise in Oral Interpretation. Its value is great in freeing timid individuals from self-consciousness, in making all feel the necessity of good articulation and of firm attack, and in helping them feel and express the rhythms and the emotions of poetry. But it also has shown that it offers fascinating opportunities for powerful artistic effects, and this without any extraneous appeals such as dancing or concerted gesture, such as some institutions have made use of.

In a recital on January 26 of this year, Mrs. Reynolds' classes, made up from the ordinary run of students, not especially selected for this purpose, gave three passages of concerted reading, Kipling's "Troopin' ", two songs of Shakespeare's, and parts I and II from Lindsay's "Congo". On May 12 in a second recital the Reading Choir repeated "The Congo" and also gave the first eleven verses of the fortieth chapter of *Isaiah*, Noye's "A Victory Ball", Poe's "Bells", Lindsay's "Daniel" and Lear's "Owl and the Pussycat". The choir was made up of men and women students, about twice as many women as men, because of the weight of the male voices. Some lines were given by individuals, some by selected groups of three or four, or all the men or all the women, but mostly by the choir as a whole in unison.

All the readings were done behind a gauze curtain, the humorous passages in full light, so that facial expression was visible; the others with less illumination, which threw, as it were, a mist about the readers, with some slight unobtrusive manipulation of color to suit the varying mood. Such variation of lighting could have been carried much farther, but was definitely avoided as too likely to divert attention from the poetry. The gauze was distinctly helpful in obscuring individual differences and emphasizing the choir as a group.

Of the selections read, the Shakespeare and Kipling were least effective, perhaps because too short to establish their mood and too lacking in variety. "The Congo" was probably most popular, because of its bold, sharp effects. Surprising, at least to some, was the dramatic impressiveness of Isaiah. Of the second program, however,

no piece failed to be liked best by some considerable part of the audience, demonstrating its general effectiveness. The audience consisted of about four hundred people, mostly students and citizens, —in no way a specially picked group, except by their interest which caused them to be present.

There is an abundance of material for this sort of reading, especially in the Bible, the old ballads, and perhaps in Greek tragedy. Poetry intended only for individuals, not for an audience, is seldom suited for concerted reading. No selection can be very long if many are to read it. Brilliant contrasts, clearly distinguished moods, vivid imagery are necessary qualities. Humor solemnity, action—all seem, however, equally successful.

G. F. Reynolds,
University of Colorado.

VOICE AND DICTION CAMPAIGN ON THE BEREA COLLEGE CAMPUS.

Editor of The Quarterly Journal of Speech:

Suddenly aware of the recent deplorable condition of the spoken word on the campus, the class in voice and diction of Berea College determined to make a concerted effort to renew a wide-spread, vigorous interest in good speech. Their aim was to focus attention on numerous, common errors rather than to attempt an immediate correction. Despite the contentions of educational psychologists they hoped that emphasis on one word typical of a class of mistakes would "carry over" to other words of the same type. Some of the methods used were more successful than others. Nevertheless, I am giving a summary of the entire procedure.

There was little ready reference material for this project. The Reader's Guide and psychology shelves were perused to no avail. A letter to the Better Speech Institute in Chicago asking for help in promoting this campaign brought a word of encouragement for the campaign but no suggestions for means of educating the student body as a whole. The voice and diction class had hoped to obtain one of the films which Mr. J. Manly Phelps of that Institute has made to accompany his lectures.

Undertaking the problem alone, the class began by making a survey of the errors which they heard. At once a flood of ungram-

matical constructions such as "I done", "he don't", "couldn't hardly", and others were reported. At this point they deemed it advisable to confine their efforts to diction mistakes only. In this way "caint", "singin' ", "athaletic", "regaler", and other atrocities were gathered together. With a list of hundreds of poorly spoken words before them the students assorted them into catagories such as accents misplaced, endings cut, consonant and vowel sounds omitted or substituted. Such a survey proved to be very valuable in finding the peculiar faults of the student body, of whom ninety per cent are from the mountain counties of the southeastern states. In this region there is practically no foreign dialect; there are comparatively few nervous characteristics of voice production which indirectly affect diction; but there is a strong pride in certain forms peculiar to the isolated family or community. Also they were forced to consider two important factors: the homogeneity of the student body naturally excludes numerous outside speech contacts; and the isolated location of the campus prevents frequent contact with good stage diction.

Three projects were started. Yellow tags were printed with words selected from different categories on the survey list; mimeographed lists of twenty words were passed out in chapel to be properly accented by members of the student body; blank score sheets were posted in each class room on which voice, diction, or grammar errors made in class were to be checked. On the yellow triangular cards were the words: "it, yes, help, kept, often, once, toward, library, something, particularly". It will be noticed that the errors are chiefly consonantal rather than vowel. This selection was necessary in that the Georgian or Kentuckian, discriminating little among the slight shades of vowels, cannot himself hear vowel substitution in the speech of others. Since the tags were to be checked by anyone who heard the mistake only consonantal mistakes in pronunciation could be used. Two semi-vowels, however, the aspirate 'h' before "it", and the phonetic symbol 'j' inserted before the vowel 'u' in "particularly" were included. The most frequently checked word in this list was, of course, "yes", which was pronounced as "yeah" and "yip" by almost everyone. The 't' sound is frequently added to "once" and also inserted in "often". The 't' in "kept" and the 'l' in "help" are each dropped, resulting in "hep" and "kep". "Toward" is often made into a two syllable word, and "library" is pronounced "liberry". "Something" vied with "yes" in frequency of checks. The almost

universal southern custom of saying 'in' for 'ing' reduces it in the first place to "sumthin' ". Further vocal inactivity reduces the word to "sumpin' ".

The following list of twenty words: *address, adult, acsthete, ally, apparatus, condolence, despicable, detail, epitome, exquisite, harass, idea, impious, incomparable, interested, mischievous, president, romance, vehement, respite*—judged substantial additions to the vocabulary of the average college students, was chosen to give practice in proper accent. The results were discouraging. No one in the college completed the list correctly. The best scores were made by two freshmen with only one mistake each. "Epitome" was most frequently incorrect; "exquisite" was correctly accented by the majority. Again the southern habit came to the fore. The Yankee says "Thanksgiving" with the accent on the "giving"; his southern neighbor calls it "Thanks-giving" accenting the first syllable. This peculiarity may account for the frequent appearance of the antepenult accent on "exquisite".

Probably the most successful method used was the classroom list. Large sheets of paper posted in each room were divided horizontally according to classes and vertically according to the following topics: audibility, mispronunciation, accent, grammar, cut ending. The topic, grammar, was introduced here by request of the professors. The possible overlapping of some of these groups did not apparently cause any trouble. Some few minutes of each class recitation were lost in appointing a checker for this list and in keeping him alert to his duties, but there was a decided ultimate gain in that the mumblers began immediately to speak "up and out". The competition between freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors was keen.

Throughout the campaign, so that the student's mind might be impressed visually with the correct form only, the wrong form of the word was never printed. For instance, "onct", "he'p", and "kep' " were hidden completely from the eyes of the students. The psychological value of this method proved to be worthwhile certainly in the case of one timid, West Virginian freshman who was heard to say, "I saw the word, 'help', that I caint' say on every 'yella' card I passed. And how that 'l' did stand 'aout'!"

Two chapel periods were devoted to this good speech week. The first, very informal, included short talks and demonstrations, while the latter was more inspirational. In the former the stress

was on voice, in the latter on diction. To give the group of six hundred a practical idea of the vocal mechanism the program was begun with a few introductory remarks explaining the physiological, phonetic, and aesthetic reasons for studying the speaking voice. Following this, various aspects of relaxation, breathing, tone production, and melody were explained. In developing relaxation, its importance was made clear, and the students were asked to settle themselves as comfortably as possible, to relax mentally and physically while the Glee Club sang a soothing melody, and then to repeat the familiar words of My Old Kentucky Home in unison. The resulting sound from six hundred hastily relaxed throats had a strange and amusing pectoral quality. A short talk on breathing followed, illustrated by a bell jar enclosing a balloon to represent a lung and covered at the bottom with a rubber sheet to represent the diaphragm. The class felt that this clear example should convince any freshman that the diaphragm is not a part of the nose. Next, one of the students compared the quality of the note of a ukelele and a violin alternately with bad and good voices. The sounds of the instruments and of the voices came from behind a screen so that the attention of the audience could be focused more economically on the quality of the sounds. The unresonant, strident voice was termed the ukelele voice; and the resonant, beautiful voice the violin voice. Now an attempt is being made to incorporate those terms in common parlance on the campus. The last part of the program, devised to show variety of melody in speech, consisted of a reading by a Georgian, a Canadian, a French student, a Spaniard, an Englishman, and a Scot, again from behind the screen.

For the second chapel Dr. James Watt Raine, head of the English department, urged the vigilant search for new and correct words. Then he developed his article, previously published in The Quarterly Journal of Speech, concerning the Elizabethan forms extant in the mountain speech. Giving the students something to be proud of in the old familiar language, as well as making them seek for the new, was an excellent finishing touch.

The next day all tags and tests were collected so that the results might be estimated. The juniors won; the sophomores were next; the freshmen, third; and seniors, last. The low average of the senior class may be accounted for by the fact that chapel attendance for that group is voluntary. Now that the contest is over and all formal

checking has ceased, it is noticeable that ears are sharper, and that old speech habits are breaking up among all classes—freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors. Speech corrections are now made more openly and received more willingly. A new speech consciousness has been awakened on the campus; therefore, the class considers their efforts have been worthwhile.

LOUISE A. BLYMYER,
Berea College, Kentucky.

LEISURE READING

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

A hearty welcome is certain to be extended to *Leisure Reading*, a new reading-list published by the National Council of Teachers of English, for the use of pupils in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

Leisure Reading contains more than 1100 titles, including the traditional classics and the best of contemporary literature. All kinds of writing are represented. The list is based on the natural interests and the popular hobbies of boys and girls between eleven and fifteen years of age. There are novels and stories; myths, legends, hero tales, and epics, biography and history; books about aviation, adventure, and travel, work, nature, science, and invention, fine arts; poetry; plays; and marionettes; and volumes dealing with vocations and with occupations for leisure time.

A unique feature of the list is the fact that every title is annotated briefly, so that the young reader can form some notion as to the contents of each book; for example:

BASTABLE CHILDREN - - - - - - - - - - - *Edith Nesbit Bland*
Some lively children attempt to retrieve the family's fallen fortunes, but in doing so get into all sorts of difficulties, from which they are rescued by an uncle from India.

TROJAN BOY - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - *Helen Coale Crew*
The story of the siege of Troy is told from the point of view of a thirteen year old Trojan boy.

IN LAWRENCE'S BODY GUARD - - - - - - - - - - - *Gurney Slade*
Irwin Baxter, sent to Arabia in a secret errand, met the great Lawrence in the desert and became a member of his bodyguard. Dangerous journeys in disguise, desert fighting, and secret diplomacy make this a gripping story.

BOY'S BOOK ON SHIPS - - - - - - - - - *Charles E. Cartwright*
Beginning with the dawn of maritime history, this book tells the story of ships through the ages, not even stopping with the present-day ship, but taking the reader for a look at ships and sailors of the future.

The list represents the expert opinion of teachers of English, librarians, publishers, authors, and booksellers throughout the country, all in conjunction with the expressed likes and dislikes of pupils of junior high-school age.

Leisure Reading and *Home Reading* can be ordered from the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West 68th St., Chicago, for 20 cents each, or for 15 cents each, if bought in quantities. The publication is strictly professional and non-commercial. A list for lower grades is in preparation.

SUSTAINING MEMBERSHIP

The 1930 Chicago Convention amended the Constitution of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION to provide for sustaining membership with dues of ten dollars per year instead of the regular two dollars and a half. In adopting this plan our organization followed the practice of many other academic societies. We are always hard pressed for funds to sustain the constantly growing program of the ASSOCIATION. At the present time the following are sustaining members:

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OLD BOOKS

The Debater: A New Theory of the Art of Speaking. By FREDERIC ROWTON. London: Longmans, Green, and Company, revised edition, 1850; pp. xx. 304.

The American Debater. By JAMES N. MCELLIGOTT. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, and Taylor, third edition, revised and enlarged, *c.* 1870; pp. vi. 362.

These two old books show what our grandfathers debated about in their debating societies, and how they studied debating. Neither book was intended for class work, and yet McElligott's went through at least three editions. The first edition was copyrighted in 1855, the third was printed about 1870. Rowton's *The Debater* is simpler and less ambitious than the other. There are only six pages of discussion of debate; the next 230 pages are devoted to skeleton debates, and the rest of the book to debate questions.

McElligott undertook the problem of debate in a fashion not unlike that of more recent writers, but he had a more exalted idea of the end and purpose of debate than most of them have today. "The end of debate," he says, "is to establish truth . . . . since the avowal of any other end would alone be sufficient to render it perfectly powerless." His first chapter deals with the qualifications of a good debater: a man of good general intelligence who strives to get the good will of the audience, who understands their motives, who aims at simplicity, clearness, and earnestness of style, who has a natural (not an artificial) delivery, who knows parliamentary procedure, and, last, who is a good extemporaneous speaker. The qualifications for a good debater have not changed much in the last fifty years.

His advice on extemporaneous speaking is just as modern: think clearly, always express every idea as well as you possibly can, write, study, and seize every opportunity to speak. In the chapter entitled "The Management of a Question" he has compressed many of the topics which are treated at greater length in later books. Our old

friend, the burden of proof, is here, some suggestions on the order of arguments, fallacies, and something of logic, but not much. There is nothing about evidence or proof, and there is no mention of outline or brief. The rules of parliamentary procedure take exactly ninety pages.

Both books have complete debates, debates in brief, and lists of questions—McElligott has 1055 questions: Rowton listed a mere 149. Many of the questions debated in those days were, according to our standards today, absolutely undebatable:

"Which was the greater poet, Wordsworth or Byron?
"Is anger a vice or a virtue?
"Which is to be preferred, a town or country life?
"Ought suicide to be taken as evidence of courage or of cowardice?
"Which is more baneful, scepticism or superstition?

Some questions would seem to a modern college debater ridiculous as well as undebatable:

"Ought old bachelors to be subjected to civil disabilities?
"Which was superior, Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror, or Katherine, wife of Henry VIII?
"Do ghosts and spectres appear?
"Is the inebriate accountable to God for the crimes he commits while intoxicated?
"Ought snowballing to be prohibited by law?"

Many questions were historical, either questions of justice or of historical fact:

"Was the execution of Major André justifiable?
"Is the story of the Trojan War credible?
"Did the reign of George IV prove beneficial to England?
"Was the Hartford Convention justifiable?
"Have the lost tribes of Israel ever been discovered?"

They did not hesitate at religious questions. What college debate team today would want to debate these?

"Shall we in the next world be able to recognize those we have known in this?
"What are the just limits to sacerdotal authority?
"Will the heathen perish eternally without the gospel?

"Is the doctrine of the pre-existence of souls in some former state fairly deducible from reason and from Revelation?

"Is the temporal essential to the spiritual jurisdiction of the Pope?"

Many of the questions which were lively then, such as slavery, imprisonment for debt, privateering, and duelling, are now settled; but our grandfathers debated many questions which are being discussed today. Among the persistent ones I find these:

"Would the universal prevalence of socialism advance the interests of humanity?

"Is capital punishment ever justifiable?

"Has the introduction of machinery been generally beneficial to mankind?

"Is trial by judges preferable to trial by jury?

"Should the press be totally free?"

Debating has more of a history than many people suppose, and some day an adequate history of debating in America will appear. When it is written perhaps the historian will undertake to trace the influence of these two books. But no history of debating can ever be a final, finished work, for as long as men are free to argue, and as long as they have problems to argue about, they will debate.

DAYTON D. MCKEAN,
Princeton University.

The Autobiography of Peter Cartwright; the Backwoods Preacher. New York, Carlton and Porter, 1856.

The pioneer circuit-rider was to the camp meeting what the induction coil is to an electric current. In any select group of these frontier evangelists of high potentiality, Peter Cartwright must be included. We are unfair, says Prof. Allan Nevins, to give such universal recognition to Franklin's *Autobiography* while we neglect such documents as those of Greeley and Cartwright. This plain account of the backwoods preacher, however, has interest to the student of speech, as well as to those interested in sociology and history. From it, we get an insight into the methods of these staunch servants of the Lord, in making "the Power of the Word" effective alike to sinners, seekers, and camp rowdies.

Cartwright's procedure was simple, and routine. Wherever he

was,—in log cabins, camp clearings, hostelries,—he would "sing, pray, take a text," preach the Word, close, and having given the invitation, exhort sinners. The style and content of his preaching can be only inferred from anecdotes recorded. First of all, it is apparent that the sustaining force in his preaching must have been the purposiveness of his speaking. A man is not likely to wade the flooded prairies, during February thaws, in order to keep his appointment for "quarterly meeting" only to find when he arrives that he has nothing to say. Occasionally there might be no one to say it to; but when a congregation of one man appeared at the appointed hour, on one occasion, Cartwright "sung, prayed, took a text," and let the lone brother have a full sermon.

Again, preaching was no one-sided performance. It involved give-and-take that might make a present day address in "the conversational mode" seem a soliloquy. The preacher who could polarize the attention of the camp gathering so closely on the state of their salvation that normal control was thrown off right and left, along with ruffles, jewelry, and other gee-gaws of the Devil, while his own attention had to be divided between congregation and the ruffians who threatened momentarily to throw him out of the preaching stand, was no tyro in matters of attention and suggestion, and hardly a white-feathered mystic. One of the devices Peter Cartwright seems to have used effectively was the narration of incident. Succeeding years on the circuits of Kentucky, Indiana, and Illinois found him with an increasing store of death-bed repentances, souls going into darkness unbending and unredeemed, conversions of stubborn sinners brought to their knees by loss of family or fortune—or being dumped in mudholes while mocking the servants of the Lord—and triumphs over the apostacy of Baptists and Universalists. He used these unsparingly, until the proud were brought low, and the stiff-necked bowed down. No doubt more than one black soul who passed out unrepentant, has a vicarious salvation due him from sinners saved by his example.

The Autobiography seems to have been addressed mainly to the brethren of the church. Its concern is with the spread of faith and the growth of Methodism—one can't be sure Cartwright made a distinction. As Sandburg points out, he does not even mention his young political rival, A. Lincoln. Those familiar with Methodist tradition will recognize set phrases of ecclesiastical potency, still to be heard

at many Methodist gatherings, given some currency, no doubt, by the forty thousand copies of the preacher's life. They will also recognize some of the anecdotes which passed, until recently at least, among Methodist preachers as a sort of oral tradition. More than once I have heard the story of Peter Cartwright's conversion of the young lady who asked Cartwright to join in the evening's dance, and the prayer-meeting that followed right there on the dance floor. In fact, one gets the impression in this plain account of a backwoods exhorter, that no little part of the influence of these men as preachers sprung from their use, and transmission of phrase, exhortation, and anecdote that gradually took form as a sort of folk tradition, crude, extempore, but psychologically not unlike the more refined lore of folk-song. If we could recover the substance of their sermons, we might get new insight into the growth of traditional, or "folk-speech."

JOHN L. CASTEEL,
University of Oregon.

Conversation, Its Faults and Graces. Compiled by ANDREW P. PEABODY, D.D., LL.D. Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co., 1867.

This little book, of which its publishers think highly enough to have recently issued a new edition, is an interesting revelation of the Victorian attitude toward conversation. Dedicated to the American Teachers, and contributed to by the Rev. Peabody, the Rev. Francis Trench, and Mr. Parry Gwynne, it is as full of moral precepts as of hints on conversation. The latter half of the book is devoted to grammar and pronunciation, and is contributed by Peabody and Gwynne. Our chief interest is with the lectures on conversation, by Peabody and Trent.

Speaking to an academy of "young ladies," Dr. Peabody apologizes for his inherent seriousness, and hits upon conversation as a subject which will at once meet their requirement of being amusing, and his of being "uplifting." Following a panegyric upon conversation, he discusses six rules for the young ladies to observe. The first is "to form and fix now . . . habits of correct and easy pronunciation." Second, "Let me next beg you to shun all the ungrammatical vulgarisms which are often heard, but which never fail to grate harshly on a well-tuned ear." Third, the young ladies are warned against "the use of exaggerated, extravagant forms of speech," for, observes the reverend lecturer, "Exaggerated speech

makes one careless of the truth." Four, "Above all things swear not at all." This prohibition extends even to such expressions as *Goodness, me! Mercy, no,* and *By my faith!* or *Patience,* which, says Dr. Peabody, like the ejaculation *Lor* is a thinly veiled attempt to avoid the appearance of an oath while retaining the substance. Five, "Evil speaking, slander, detraction, gossip, scandal, are different names for one of the chief dangers to be guarded against in conversation." "A taste for scandal," the young ladies are warned, "betrays a vacant mind." Six, merely idle talk is warned against. "How many talk on unthinkingly and heedlessly, as if the swift exercise of the organs of speech were the great end of Life!" A conclusion, which might be regarded as a seventh injunction, is that "All conversation ought to be religious."

For the general message of the lecture, we must turn to its early part: "In fine, transparency is an essential attribute of all graceful and becoming speech. Language ought to represent the speaker's ideas, neither more nor less . . . . Let your thoughts be as strong, as witty, as brilliant, as you can make them, but never seek to atone for feeble thought by large words, or to rig out foolish conceits in the spangled robe of genuine wit. Speak as you think and feel; and let the tongue always be an honest interpreter to the heart."

Rev. Trench also praises the conversational art, and regrets that "so little, so very little, has systematically been written or said upon it." Likewise he stresses the religious nature of conversation: "to aim at pleasing God and serving our fellow-creatures is . . . the one grand object and scope with which at all times we should use and exchange it." In concluding the lecture, he appeals to the great writers of the ages, who have made use of the conversational device, linking Shakespeare and Sir Walter Scott as "the two most popular writers of our land, except one," who have used it. This one, who surpasses Shakespeare as well as Scott might easily be guessed to be John Bunyan—as it surely is. And not only does Bunyan make use of conversation in his books, but so also does the Bible. Satisfied with these authorities, Rev. Trench does not hesitate to discuss the subject.

He disposes of the claim that "conversation is not a fit subject for a lecture at all, but should be considered as too independent and free to have any rules, principles, or guidance applied to it," by quoting "the whole truth" from Cooper:

"Though conversation in its better part
May be esteemed a gift, and not an art,
Yet much depends, as in the tiller's toil,
On culture, and the sowing of the soil."

This justification of his lecture is succeeded by the definition of conversation as "the exchange and communication, by word, of that which is passing in the inward mind and heart." To the inadequacy of that, he adds the assumption that it is the gift of conversation which chiefly distinguishes man from the beasts.

Among the random rules for good conversation which he gives, I shall quote some typical specimens. " . . . in all conversation, special attention should ever be paid to the feelings of all present. Every subject should be studiously avoided likely to give needless pain." "Among injurious practices in talk, the following may perhaps be enumerated:—an overbearing vehemence, challenging assertions, cold indifference to the statements of others, a love of argumentation, an inclination to regard fair liberty of mutual address as undue license, pressure on another to express more than he desires, all personalities." But conversation "requires not only mutual forebearance in talk, but mutual sympathy too, mutual encouragement one from the other." "I repeat it, there must be no despotism in society. Equality must prevail as a general rule." "Drawing a person out," or the proper use of questioning, is necessary to "the due interchange of expression, which alone merits the name " of conversation.

Among other rules, Rev. Trench mentions the "give and take" character of talking and listening with equal grace; the care needed to avoid monotony, which may be accomplished by change of both subject and tempo; the advisability of keeping all of the group engaged together, and not permitting it to break up into "little knots"; the "appropriate tone of voice," which is just loud enough for all to hear; the delicacy necessary to avoid mentioning subjects which may call up unpleasant thoughts for some present.

Finally, he gives rules for conversing with those of higher or lower social rank. For the former, we should show "that deference is not only the custom of all nations, but the Scripture also most evidently inculcates." However, "The rank of another does not in the least demand that you should surrender your opinion to his." For lower classes, be firm, but not overbearing; natural but not condescending; simple language without undue limitation of subject;

communicative, and at the same time willing to listen. The lecture ends with a plea for more, and better, conversation.

While inadequate in discussing form, and Victorian in discussing matter, these lectures are at least interesting and revealing testimony of the type of education and thought current during the middle of the last century. If for no other reason, they justify the new edition accorded them.

ROBERT T. OLIVER,
University of Oregon.

NEW BOOKS

Modern Eloquence. New Edition. New York: Modern Eloquence Corporation, 1928; 15 volumes.

The 1923 twelve volume edition of this well-known anthology of oratory has now been expanded to fifteen volumes containing 800 speeches apportioned as follows: Volumes I, II, III,—After Dinner Speeches; Volumes IV, V, VI—Speeches dealing with Business, Industry, and the Professions; Volumes VII, VIII, IX—Speeches on Public Affairs (Subdivided into Literary and Educational, Government and Citizenship, and Lives of Great Men); Volumes X, XI, XII—Historical Masterpieces (European, American, and World War; Volume XIII—Famous Lectures—Humorous, Inspirational, and Scientific; Volume XIV—Anecdotes and Epigrams; Volume XV—Two Public Debates, (one on capitalism vs. socialism between Professors Seligman and Nearing with Oswald Garrison Villard presiding, and the other on the menace of the leisured woman between Lady Rhondda and G. K. Chesterton with George Bernard Shaw presiding), a Treatise on *Speaking and Speech Making* by Harry Morgan Ayres, Associate Professor of English, Columbia University, a number of shorter "special articles" on various technical speech problems, and a double concordance index with 10,000 cross references. Among the "special articles by eminent authorities which are in themselves a complete and comprehensive course in the art of public speaking" are the following: *The Business Man as a Speaker,* Joseph F. Johnson; *Delivering an Address,* Brander Matthews; *Wit, Humor, and Anecdote,* Champ Clark; *Public Speaking,* Albert J. Beveridge; *Debating,* Arthur W. Riley; *Effective Radio Speaking,* R. C. Borden; *Hygiene of the Voice,* Irving W. Voorhees; *Platform Appearance,* Dwight E. Watkins, etc., etc.

In the General Preface, the managing editor states: "Nearly all of the material in the preceding edition has been retained, though somewhat rearranged but the following important additions have been made:

"1. Another volume of speeches on business and industry has been added . . . .
"2. A new volume of occasional addresses has been prepared entitled 'The Professions', containing speeches by men of distinction in law, medicine, the ministry, engineering, and other professions.
"3. A collection of over one thousand epigrams has been made and arranged in a manner for convenient reference . . . .
"4. The material on 'How to Speak' has been enlarged . . . ."

Like its predecessor, the present edition was prepared under the Managing Editorship of Dr. A. H. Thorndike, assisted by a board made up of: Brander Matthews, Nicholas Murray Butler, Henry Van Dyke, John W. Davis, Elihu Root, Henry Cabot Lodge, Oscar Straus, Augustus Thomas, and Sir Robert Laird Borden. All of the editors are specialists in some field other than speech. (For a fairly obvious reason certain of these editors could have had little to do with this edition!) Perhaps a teacher of speech may be pardoned for wondering why no distinguished professor of public speaking has been included in the list of editors. One sometimes wishes that experts in speech might have a hand in compiling such an important collection of "speeches;" they would apply speech criteria in making their choices, realizing that not all eminent men are, *ipso facto*, great *speakers*. Sometimes such "speakers" merely read manuscripts which should be classified as essays rather than as speeches and, as has often been pointed out, in these printed "speeches" we cannot be sure that we have an accurate record of what the speakers really said. Often the published "speeches" have been carefully edited and re-written embodying ideas and expressed in phrases which were not in the actual public addresses. Inevitably, these considerations limit the usefulness of such "speeches" as models or examples of speech composition. However, they do not detract from the value of the collection as an addition to a general reference library.

As in former editions, the list of speakers reads like a fairly complete roster of the noted men of modern times. As has been said, the material is carefully cross indexed and thus made easily available to the reader. This new and enlarged *Modern Eloquence* has no rivals in its field and it contains much material of extraordinary interest and value to the student of speech-making.

A. T. W.

The Spoken Word in Life and Art, By ESTELLE H.DAVIS, Barnard College and Columbia Univ., and EDWARD W. MAMMEN, College of the City of New York; Prentice-Hall, New York, 1932. pp. xv and 512.)

Few books of the treatise type have been written in recent years for the avowed purpose of use in elementary classes in Speech. The preface of this one claims that "it may be used in courses in elementary speech training, in elocution (reading aloud) and acting. It should prove valuable, also, to the man in the street, when used under the guidance of a competent instructor." Certainly, however, we cannot infer from the content that it is written with much more than elementary training in reading in mind. Perhaps the authors believe that reading is at the basis of all speech training. If one holds that view, the value of this volume is doubtless much greater.

The authors believe that "a solid foundation in the technic of breathing, voice and speech should precede any advanced work in public speaking or acting." The development of this physiological and physical approach comprises nearly all the first 250 pages. These chapters are well written collections of materials from a large number of sources, many of which are not specifically noted. Several helpful pictures and diagrams on anatomy, resonance, and phonetics have been included. One is inclined to wonder, however, whether these chapters on physiology and physics of voice will not be found more valuable as compilations of theory and methodology rather than as elementary textual chapters, unless a comparatively large amount of time is available for this type of study.

One hundred fifty pages of this portion of the book are devoted to phonetic training and English usage in pronunciation, although we are warned at the beginning to avoid making a "fetish of accurate recording." A liberal attitude is taken toward most regional differences in pronunciation, except toward those particularly vulgar persons who add *r's*. The chapter on "Changes in Speech Sounds" in everyday usage and practice is a valuable collection of observations.

The general "Voice Training" chapter which precedes the lengthy one on phonetics is very similar to those of Dr. Woolbert's on voice and action, except that a more detailed series of exercises is provided from those developed by the authors and from Raubicheck and Carll. This chapter is perhaps the most readily adaptable to a beginning speaking course.

Two large sections of the volume are labeled "Intellectual Content" and "Emotional Content". This division, and indeed, the content of these chapters are based upon the viewpoint of the formal reader, very similar to that of the older elocution days. Doubtless, useful suggestions of detailed methods in reading aloud will be found, if the teacher of the elementary course desires to stress them. If it is intended that much of this portion of the book is to be used for training speakers as well as readers, its attitude is a far cry from the modern psychological approach to the development of speaking ability.

A wide choice of readings in prose and poetry is interspersed in these chapters. A speech by Nicholas Murray Butler has been cautiously, but carefully included in the midst of a group by Walpole, Pitt, Webster, Bacon and Lamb, as models of pure prose literature for reading aloud.

The last section of the book discusses theories of acting, "the most impure of all arts", and the development of acting ability.

The style of writing used by the authors is sufficiently simple and definite that the book should be readily understandable, even in the technical chapters, by college students.

The volume falls short of being a complete treatise by its omission of rhetoric and the psychology of speech, except as the latter particularly applies to reading. Its scientific approach is commendable, but cumbersome for use in a beginning group. Many teachers, too, are but slightly in sympathy with anything approximating the strong phonetic emphasis afforded in it for beginning courses. As a fine collection of data in the fields which it treats, as a manual of reference on the physiology and physics of voice, insofar as it presents the newer theories in these fields, and in phonetics, we ought to welcome the book. Doubtless there will be valuable information for most students, and a rich fund of exercises and techniques for those who wish to find these ready made.

GEORGE V. BOHMAN,
Dakota Wesleyan University.

A Practical Teacher of Public Speaking. By HERALD M. DOXSEE. The Bruce Publishing Co., New York, 1932; pp. 243.

"The author has taken special pains to present the subject matter in such a manner that it can be readily applied by a teacher who has had little experience or training in the field of public speaking." At

the very beginning, one must take issue with the opening paragraph of this book. If the teaching of Speech has become so simple that no rigorous preparation is required, then there is even less need for a book on the subject.

I have read the book carefully. As I finish the last chapter, I am reminded of Sir Andrew Aguecheek of *Twelfth Night,* who hears Viola salute her lady: "The heavens rain odours on you . . . My matter hath no voice, lady, but to your own most pregnant and vouchsafed ear." Sir Andrew repeats: "'Odours', 'pregnant', and 'vouchsafed'. I'll get 'em all three all ready." Tidbits of knowledge! Stale crumbs of the commonplace. Well, that's about all that a trained teacher of Speech will find in this book. The chapter titles, at the very outset, will perplex him. "Nervousness, Breathing, Enunciation, Smoothness, Memorizing" are parallel sections in the first chapter: "Problems." In chapter II, "Plain Speaking", the author discusses memorizing again. In chapter III, "Before the Audience", he considers voice although he has already mentioned breathing for speech in chapter I. The title of chapter X is "Delivering the Speech." Much of what was said in chapter III necessarily must be repeated in this chapter. "Sales talk" is the theme of the fifth chapter; "Argument" of the sixth. Because the author has failed to make clear-cut divisions, there is an endless duplication.

The trained teacher of Speech, moreover, will reject the book because of its inaccuracies, its half-truths, and its questionable statements of practice. Here are a few extracts:

"Nervousness is purely a mental state. The man who can convince himself that he has nothing to fear in presenting his ideas to his audience will be troubled very little with the *nervous bogy.*"

"The point is that successful speakers almost invariably control their breath by use of the diaphragm rather than by the muscles of the chest."

"The reason, in all probability, was that they were not using the diaphragm in speaking."

"Short pauses may correspond to commas, longer ones to colons, and semicolons, and still longer ones to periods."

"The voice of a man who loves people draws his audience toward him by a certain richness of tone not found in the voice of the selfish man."

"The usual form of address before beginning the speech is:

'Mr. or Madam Chairman, worthy opponents, honorable judges, ladies and gentlemen'."

"There is only one good excuse for turning down an invitation to speak, and that is ill health." In connection with this statement, I should like to suggest that many people should decline more often on the legitimate ground that they have nothing to say.

I see only two excuses for reading this book. The chapter on "Argument" is fairly well written and the drawings should attract your attention. They are original and entertaining even though they are not always appropriate.

MILDRED FREBURG BEERY,
Rockford College.

Educational Sociology. By DANIEL H. KULP. II. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1932; Chapters IX, XI-XIII.

To abstract three or four chapters from an interesting book for purposes of review is neither fair to the author of the volume nor to the reader of the report. But an extenuating circumstance may serve as sufficient reason for this departure from the approved procedure. Ordinarily, volumes dealing with sociological science receive little of our attention—and this despite the fact that our field is closely connected with the social relations which constitute the focus of the sociologists' concern. But in Professor Kulp's book there are at least four chapters which should be of immediate interest to teachers of Speech. These chapters—one dealing with the "Social Nature of Habits and Thinking", two dealing with "Social Interaction", and another dealing with "Crowds and Social Movements"—may be isolated from the total pattern of the volume with a minimum of the distortion usually produced by piecemeal analysis.

In developing his conception of the role of habits and thinking in human conduct, Professor Kulp holds the not uncommon view that thinking is the necessary technic of adjustment to "crisis situations." When problems or "crises" provoked perhaps by changes in personality or changes in environment confront man, he turns, because of the inadequacy of the habit systems as tools, to another type of behavior—thinking. Thinking is thus a convenient and satisfactory technic of removing the individual from problem situations. In his analysis and discussion of the cycle of thinking, Professor Kulp treats of the usual steps in the reflective process, stressing with

greater detail, however, the social significance of the thought performance. For students of public discussion this treatment is of special value.

In the other chapters to which reference has been made the students of public speaking will find new and usable material on social interaction and collective behavior. Of unusual interest is the chapter on "Crowds and Social Movements." In addition to the fresh treatment of the circular behavior phenomenon, there is a discussion of the types of crowds dominated by action, as well as of those dominated by ideas. Diagrams illustrating the course of behavior in these crowds add clarity to Professor Kulp's treatment. This chapter—to say nothing of the book as a whole—is rich in material suitable for supplementary reading in advanced Speech courses.

LESTER W. THONSSEN,
College of the City of New York.

University Debaters' Annual. Edited by EDITH M. PHELPS. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1932: pp. 462. $2.25.

Now in its eighteenth year, the University Debater's Annual for 1931-1932 has just come from the press. It contains complete stenographic reports of intercollegiate debates on: (1) The relative values of Russian and American Civilizations; (2) The control of production and distribution in major basic industries; (3) The effect of wage cutting on business recovery; (4) The wisdom of armed intervention in the Caribbean; (5) The relative merits of industrialism and agrarianism for the South; (6) The recognition of Russia; (7) The centralized control of industry; and (8) The cancellation of war debts and reparations.

The colleges and universities represented are: Oxford University, University of Porto Rico, Robert College, Washington and Lee University, Vanderbilt University, Gustavus Adolphus College, Purdue University, Northwest Nazarene College, Spokane University, and the State Universities of Arizona, Arkansas, California, Georgia, Illinois, Missouri, North Dakota, Tennessee, and Wisconsin. The St. Louis chapter of the American Institute of Banking is also represented. A brief of each question and a working bibliography are included.

The general reader will find it possible to secure from these debates a knowledge of the main arguments on both sides and a great

deal of valuable information on the questions under discussion. The debater and his instructor will be interested in the methods used in the organization and presentation of constructive and rebuttal arguments.

H. L. EWBANK,
University of Wisconsin.

The Dictionary Companion. By C. O. SYLVESTER MAWSON. Garden City, New York; Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., 1932; pp. 479. $——.

The Dictionary Companion is a new book by the editor of *Roget's International Thesaurus* and *The Roget Dictionary*. It is precisely what its title implies, a dictionary companion. As such it is not intended to substitute for the dictionary but to supplement, explain and make it more usable.

The material in *The Dictionary Companion* is of great variety and constitutes a collecting together of a mass of scholarly data belonging to the fields of spelling, grammar, rhetoric, etymology, and general linguistics. Some of this material is as simple as the rule for dropping the final consonant on the addition of a suffix, or the pluralizing of a noun ending in *f* or *fe*. At other times it is as difficult as the derivation of *stirup* from OE. *stirop* or *stirap*, which, in turn, comes from earlier OE. *stigan*, to climb. (cf. Ger. *steigen*) and *rap*, meaning rope.

It were futile to try to make an inclusive review of a book containing so many pages of such diverse material.

It may be mentioned as a slight matter for regret that Mr. Mawson does not indicate pronunciations by use of phonetic symbols—in addition to the use of the symbol (*ŋ*) for *ng*. Instead, he uses capital letters and other markings which are probably as difficult to remember as the phonetic symbols, and which lack the universality of the latter. However, this fault, if it be one, is a fault shared by nearly all dictionary makers.

It should be made clear that the best way to get values from *The Dictionary Companion* is to read it through. It is valuable as a reference but much less so without a previous complete reading. Anyone to whom words are a fascination and a delight will have no difficulty with such a reading. On the contrary, all will find among

much familiar material many many illuminating side-lights not to be so conveniently obtained from any other source.

C. M. WISE,
Louisiana State University.

Modern Debating. By ANDREW N. FOX. Chicago: The Follette Publishing Company, 1932: pp. viii, 347.

Even though there is nothing very new in this book, it is a clear treatment of the subject of debate. Dr. Fox, who calls himself an "author-lecturer," writes clearly and vividly. He has a sense for pat illustrations. It would seem that he has leaned rather heavily upon other books on debating, and especially upon Foster's *Argumentation and Debating;* the plan and arrangement of the book is strikingly similar, although the treatment of debating is reduced to 139 pages. *Modern Debating* might be used for a short college course, but it would probably fit best in an advanced high-school course.

There is nothing in this text about the audience. In that sense it is not very modern, for recent textbooks have tended to consider the audience as part of the debate. This is the sort of text to use for a high-school debate team which is interested primarily in getting decisions. The study of debate as set forth in this book, although it is clear and sound, is debate for judges and not for an audience. The subject of persuasion is treated in one paragraph, where persuasion is contrasted with conviction.

The appendix comprises more than half the book (pp. 141-344). It includes affirmative and negative arguments on the chain store and unemployment insurance questions, and admirable analysis of the subject matter of the question of Philippine independence, a number of debate questions, and arguments for special study.

DAYTON D. MCKEAN,
Princeton University.

The Theory of Speech and Language. By ALAN H. GARDINER. New York: Oxford University Press, 1932; pp. x, 332; $3.

"The problem which I am setting before myself may best be indicated by a comparison. Suppose an intelligent boy to be inquiring how the telephone or the wireless works. If the question were rightly addressed, the answer would doubtless

supply a clear account of the mechanism—an account which, without penetrating very deeply into the laws of physics, would satisfy the inquirer and carry with it immediate conviction. Could a like question be put to the ordinary philologist? Could he be trusted to give a sensible reply to the inquiry what language is and how speech works? A fairly wide acquaintance with the literature of linguistics has convinced me of the contrary."

The theory of speech thus introduced takes as its fundamental postulate that speech is always social and purposive; and sets itself against every explanation of speech as pure self-expression. It distinguishes in every act of speech four factors: the speaker, the listener, the words used, and the thing meant. Emphasis upon the "thing meant" in distinction from the "meaning of words" makes this theory of special interest and value. Mr. Gardiner would reject "the expression of thoughts" as a description of speech, in favor of a "reference to *things*." "When I say to a friend, *Cake?* holding out the plate, the thing meant by the word is eatable, while the meaning of the word is not. When I say, *Oxygen is an element*, the thing meant by *oxygen* can be isolated in a test-tube, while the meaning of the word *oxygen* cannot." Thus speech always involves a reference to something external (or potentially external) to both the speaker and listener.

Another distinction emphasized by Mr. Gardiner is that between speech and language. Speech, the activity, draws upon and utilizes (though it also contributes to and alters) language, the science, the body of more or less permanent knowledge. Speech is occasional and relevant to the specific speaker, listener, and thing meant; language is traditional, general, and impersonal, and tends to be an abstraction. The sentence is the unit of speech; the word is the unit of language. Speech sets up a relation with things meant; language stops with the meanings of words.

Without further attempt at a summary, let it be said that Part I of this book (entitled "General Theory") contains much that will enlighten and fortify teachers in any sector of the field of speech. This part may be read as a very thorough analysis of Winans' phrases, "sense of communication" and "realization of content"; this anaylsis should be of special value to teachers of reading. Part II of the book (entitled "Theory of the Sentence") is of more interest

to grammarians, though generally readable and suggestive. In attempting to show the genesis and function of the sentence in speech, Mr. Gardiner would have profited by the concept of the speech-phrase, a concept which he seems utterly to lack.

It is in the direction of grammar that the author's study leads; he is himself a distinguished Egyptologist, the author of an Egyptian grammar; and he promises further works, the first to be "an elementary grammar for children, free from the usual taint of abstraction and unreality . . . . The opening lesson will explain what men seek to achieve by speech, and how this is to be distinguished from language. Word and sentence will be contrasted as things fundamentally different, and the pupil will be made to recognize both of them as facts of daily experience; thus they will cease to be felt as figments expressly invented to torment the juvenile mind."

HOYT H. HUDSON,
Princeton University.

A Study of the Status of Speech Correction in the Public Schools of United States and Canada with Suggestions and Exercises for Speech Correction in the Elementary School. LETHA A. RICE. Master's Thesis, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas. 1931. 200 pages.

The writer sets for herself, at the outset, a fourfold problem: (1) to present the status of speech correction in the public schools of the United States and Canada, (2) to classify speech defects, (3) to offer suggestions and exercises for the treatment of minor speech disorders, and (4) to supply a working bibliography for the classroom teacher. It is distinctly indicated that there is no attempt to make any original contribution to the field of speech correction. An exception is hereinafter noted.

To determine what is being done in corrective speech in the United States and Canada, fifty-six letters were sent, one each, to the State Superintendents of instruction and to the Ministers of Education of the provinces. The letter:

> "What are you doing in the field of speech correction in the schools of your state? Are you carrying out a program of corrective speech in your public schools? If so, how is it being accomplished?

"Has there been recent survey (say, in the last five years, or quite recently) of defective speech in your schools? If there has been such a survey, can you give me the statistical results?

"Are the teachers of your public schools required to take a college course in speech training?"

Fifty-six (!) replies were received. All except those from Arizona, North Dakota, Delaware, Iowa, New Jersey, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Washington, Wisconsin, and Manitoba indicated that little, if any, work was being done or had been done. It seemed apparent in most cases that the person in charge of the educational program of a given state knew little about what was going on in his or her territory concerning speech correction.

The classification of speech defects follows that of Borden and Bussee, with additions from other authors.

The suggestions and exercises for the treatment of minor disorders are taken primarily from Stinchfield (Speech Pathology), and Greene and Wells. The presentation of this material discloses a lack of background in phonetics on the part of the author. Among other things may be noted the treatment of (h) as having a distinct mouth mold and tongue position, rather than being considered as only a form of glottal atack; the lack of consideration of the fortis (p) (b); the failure to recognize the (ei) diphthong (incidentally diphthong is consistently misspelled); and the omission of the so-common (ə) as found in the final syllable of Kansas. Drill sounds, sentences, and poetry cover approximately fifty pages. Considerable revamping and correction would seem to be necessary before any great use could be made of this material.

The author has worked out a testing device which she calls "The Speech Sounds Game". "The device consists of a disk upon which there are twenty-four illustrations, each representing one or more of the fundamental speech sounds. An arrow is fastened in the center of the disk. The child spins the arrow and when it stops, he tells the examiner what the object is or what sound the object makes." The objects, which are arranged in two concentric circles, together with the sounds follow:

Goose-oo-kw (quaw, quaw); Sheep-sh-a (ba-ba); Rooster-roo (cock-a-doodle); Snake-s (hiss); Drum-d (rat-a-tat); Dog-d (bow-wow); Duck-d (quack, quack); Cat-k) meow, meow); Horse-h

(n-n-n-n); Automobile, Car-ah (honk, honk); Bear-b (woof, woof); Owl-ow (hoot, hoot); Watch-ch (tick-tock); Bell-b-ng (ding, dong); Bird-ir (peep, peep); Hive, Bee-v-ee (Buzz-buzz); Faucet-f (gug-gug); Mouse-m (squeak, squeak); Spool, Thread-sp-th; Apple-pl; Umbrella-m-br; Ring-r-ng; Tree-tr; Fan-f.

The score sheet accompanying this test contains five possibilities of marking: Perfect, Cannot Make, Stuttered, Lisped, Substituted.

In addition to the words and sounds above listed, there are other words or sounds to be secured as responses from the patient through the question method, e.g. What color is the apple? Ans. Red. No provision is made for an examiner to secure accurate phonetic records of the speech of the examinee. In view of the widespread use of phonetic symbols—and only through their use can anything like a real picture of the speech be obtained—the failure of the writer to use them in the test and in the practice drills must be set down as a serious shortcoming which could have been easily remedied.

The short bibliography contains some fifty well grounded references.

L. S. V. Judson,
University of Wisconsin.

IN THE PERIODICALS

Dialect Notes. Publications of the American Dialect Society. The Tuttle, Morehouse and Taylor Co., New Haven, Conn. Membership dues, $2.00 per year.

Every student of phonetics should be interested in the publications of the American Dialect Society. The fly-leaf notice expresses accurately the scope of the journal: "Dialect Notes records words, senses, pronunciations and syntactical constructions peculiar to American popular speech. It contains also papers on dialects of various localities and matters of interest to students of dialect. It has been issued, usually annually, sometimes semi-annually, since 1889." There are now two issues of *Dialect Notes* each year.

The publication of R. H. Thornton's "American Glossary" (begun in Volume three) is a real contribution to the history of American speech. Most readers will agree with the editor that the "unique value of Thornton's collection is that every quotation is given with exact citation of date and place". Edward Everett Hale, Jr. gives an illuminating account of the growth of a sectional vocabulary in his article: "Geographical Terms in the Far West". Volume V, Part IV, also includes a statement of the progress of the Linguistic Atlas, a project in which members of the Dialect Society are actively engaged.

Dialect Notes should be valuable to many students of Speech.

MILDRED FREBURG BERRY.

NEWS AND NOTES

Please send news items for this department directly to Miss Lousene Rousseau, 49 East 33rd Street, New York City.

American teachers of speech will be interested in the approaching visit to this country of Miss Marjorie Gullan, Chairman of Department of Speech Training at the Regent Street Polytechnic, in London, as well as in charge of the speech work at the London Day Training College. She has published four books on speech training and poetry speaking, all in England, and will give a course in Speech Training and Choral Speaking at the 1933 Summer Session of the University of California at Berkeley. Miss Gullan will be available in this country until the end of 1933, for lectures, recitals, etc. She may be reached at the Polytechnic School of Speech Training, Little Titchfield Street, London, W 1, England.

* * * *

Increasing interest is being manifested in radio opportunities for speech students, and the National Broadcasting Company is making an effort to extend its facilities along these lines. On April 26 a student recital was given over WEAF, eight students reading poems from Carl Sandburg. Two days later the third Round Table Conference met at the N.B.C. studios in New York, to hear ten short stories in student auditions, four of which were selected for another student broadcast on May 17. The final student broadcast for the season, on May 31, was devoted to extemporaneous speeches. Students of speech classes in colleges and universities in or near New York ar invited to send representatives to these broadcasts.

* * * *

Ohio State University was host, on June 6 to 9, to the Third Institute of Education by Radio. The speakers were leading officials and workers in both of the big broadcasting chains and in educational broadcasting, and many of the subjects for discussion were concerned with speech problems.

* * * *

The Ohio Association of College Speech Teachers held a conference at the Deshler Wallick Hotel in Columbus on Saturday, April 9th. The following program was presented:

Professor J. T. Marshman, Ohio Wesleyan University, "High School Debate Ethics and Judging Problems."

Professor Arthur Postle, Cincinnati University, "Public Speaking Work Given in Ohio Colleges."

Professor William A. D. Millson, Western Reserve University, "Methods of Measuring Audience Response in Public Speaking."

PROFESSOR H. DANA HOPKINS, Heidelberg College, "Speech Work Taught in Public Schools of Indiana."

PROFESSOR LIONEL CROCKER, Denison University, "Research Methods in the Study of Oratory of an Individual Speaker."

The following resolutions were passed:

1. That college debate judges, in judging high school debates, should attempt to instill in the high school debaters the idea of sportsmanship and fair play, to counterbalance the prevalent overemphasized desire to win.

2. That the text book used in the beginning college speech course should incorporate the following:

1. Position, gesture, and action.
2. Pronunciation and enunciation.
3. Original speaking.
4. Speech structure.
5. Technique of communication.
6. That the course should stress fundamentals and be conducted as a speech laboratory course.

3. That Ohio join the Federation of speech teachers of the Central States.

The following officers were re-elected:

PROFESSOR EARL W. WILEY, Ohio State, President.

ROLAND G. ALLEN, Secretary and Treasurer.

* * * *

The second State Speech Conference of the Oregon Speech Association was held at Portland, May 13 and 14. Over 100 teachers attended the meetings. Officers for the coming year are: Carlyn Winger, Pacific University, President; Ralph Bailey, Medford High School, Vice-President; and Miss Frances Ann Blake, Vale High School, Secretary-Treasurer. The programs were as follows:

Friday Morning—General Meeting

Round Table Discussion: 1. The future program of the Oregon Speech Association; 2. Plans for the fifth annual convention of the Western Association of Teachers of Speech, to be held in Portland, November, 1933; 3. Appointment of the nominating committee.

Friday Afternoon—Part I

Development of Creative and Interpretative Work through:

(a) Dramatics: Miss Lulu Simmons, Auditorium Director, Kellogg School, Portland.
(b) Poetry: Miss Violet Cavana, Auditorium Director, Llewellyn School, Portland.
(c) Music: John Lehman, Auditorium Director, Bend Public Schools.
(d) Puppetry: Miss Dagny Hanson, Auditorium Director, Lents School, Portland.

Part II

"Integrating Personality Through Speech Correction"—Dr. Henry Dixon, Professor of Psychiatry, University of Oregon.

"Methods in Speech Correction for the Elementary Child"—Earl W. Wells, Oregon State College.

Saturday Morning

Discussion Leaders for "The High School Play"—Mrs. Mary Childs, Albany High School, and Boyd Homewood, Dalles High School.

Discussion Leaders for "High School Forensic Contests"—Dorsey E. Dent. Gresham High School, and John R. Purcell, Jefferson High School, Portland.

"The Place of Conversation in the Speech Curriculum"—Robert T. Oliver, University of Oregon.

"Forensic Problems—Internal and External"—W. A. Dahlberg, Oregon State College.

"The Values of Phonetic Training"—Mrs. Ottilie Seybolt, University of Oregon.

Saturday Afternoon

"The Necessity for Development in Voice and Diction"—Miss Jessamine Norwine, Director Toy Theater Players, Portland.

"The Relation of Drama and the Movies"—Edward Maynard Lynch, New Dufwin Players, Portland.

"Speech an Index to Personality in Business"—Walter W. R. May.

"The Oregon Speech Association"—Ralph Bailey, Medford High School.

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The following program was presented at the Drama Conference and Demonstration sponsored by the Teachers of Speech of Indiana, in cooperation with the Division of Speech and the Extension Division of Indiana University, at Bloomington, May 6:

"Choosing a suitable play and meeting royalty demands"—Miss Winifred Ray, Wiley High School, Terre Haute.

"Choosing the cast"—Capt. Charles Mather, Culver Military Academy.

"Planning the action and working out a schedule of rehearsals"—Mildred Harter, Gary High School.

"Maximum stage effect with minimum equipment"—R. E. Williams, De Pauw University.

"Effective methods of publicity and ticket sales"—Leora Weimar, Indiana Central College.

"Creating and meeting the demand for community drama"—H. C. Morgan, Earlham College.

During the afternoon two one-act plays were presented and discussed, and two more were on the evening program. The schools presenting the plays were the Garfield High School, Terre Haute, the Bosse High School, Evansville, the Central High School, South Bend, and the Marion High School. The conference closed with a review of the day by H. B. Gough, of De Pauw University.

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By action of the faculty of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, the courses at the University of Illinois formerly known by the general title of "Public Speaking" have been renamed "Speech."

The new Fine Arts Building at Louisiana State University, occupied for the first time during the past summer session, is designed to house the Departments of Music and Speech. The new half-million dollar building is one of the most beautiful and complete educational buildings in the country. On the marble entrance is inscribed this quotation from Quintilian: "God, the all powerful father of nature and creator of the world, hath exalted man above every other animal by no character so potent as the faculty of speech."

The facilities of the Fine Arts Building for the teaching of speech are excellent. There are two theaters, one seating 550, and the workshop theater seating 132, planned for practice and for productions of the Players Guild. The main theater is equipped with a $60,000 lighting system, including a pre-selector switchboard. It has a full height loft and grid, with a modern counter-weight system operating a $14,000 complement of scenery and drapes. There are eight individual dressing rooms and two large ones, a large wardrobe room with costume cabinets, a storage dock and a carpenter shop.

The Fine Arts building also contains a laboratory fitted with the latest instruments and facilities for experimentation and research, and six small soundproof clinical rooms for speech correction work. The entire structure is fitted with microphone pick-ups and loud speakers so that intra-mural broadcasting may be carried on from any place and received at any place within it. This apparatus is to subserve the new courses in radio work planned to begin in the fall. The usual classrooms and offices complete the plant of the Speech Department.

Adjacent to the Fine Arts Building, the Greek Theater, seating 3000 persons, which, in the mild climate of Louisiana, is usable almost the entire year, is being rebuilt and re-equipped with lighting instruments of the most up-to-date type. The stage has been enlarged with wide ramps set with shrubbery, and the lighting reworked in new weatherproof units, operated from a concrete control room beneath the stage.

The occupation of this building marks the fourth year of the existence of the Department of Speech of Louisiana State University, under its present organization and under the headship of Dr. C. M. Wise. During this period the enrollment of the Department has grown from 50 to 475, with a corresponding expansion and modernization of curriculum. At the last commencement the Department granted two graduate degrees, thus becoming, so far as is known, the first Department of Speech in a southern institution to grant advanced degrees.

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The University of Missouri is now requiring all majors and minors in English in the School of Education to take a course in the Oral Interpretation of Literature, and all majors must also take a course in Public Speaking. The State Department of Education in Missouri now recommends that all students preparing to teach English include six hours of speech work in their programs. Specialized teachers of speech are required to have at least fifteen hours of courses in speech.

The School of Education of the University of Wisconsin now requires proficiency in speech as one of the requisites for admission. The bulletin states:

"No student will be accepted into the School of Education unless his scholastic record is sufficiently high to indicate the probability of success in some teaching field. Applicants for transfer are also required to present evidence of proficiency in speech in the form of either (a) a rating by the speech Examination Committee of the School of Education, or (b) a grade in Speech 1 (Fundamentals of Speech)".

FORENSICS

The National Speech Tournament has become one of the outstanding speech events in the United States. The wide participation in the first such tournament, held last year at Ripon, Wisconsin, was in excess of all expectation, but the registration this year was almost doubled. Forty-four schools entered their state-winning debate teams, and a total of 92 schools sent 247 contestants and 73 coaches to the Second National Tournament held at Sioux City, Iowa in May. The championship debate was placed by the Columbia Broadcasting Company as a feature program on a nation-wide network. Other contests were held in original oratory, extempore speaking, and humorous, oratorical, and dramatic declamation.

An interesting and novel feature of the National Speech Tournament this year was a Coaches' Discussion Contest, in which eight contestants participated. Entrants to the contest were selected by Dr. A. T. Weaver, editor of *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, H. L. Ewbank, president of Delta Sigma Rho, and Bruno E. Jacob, Secretary of the National Forensic League. The contest proved so successful that it is proposed to extend it to other divisions of speech activity next year.

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The fifteenth annual state championship debate of the Michigan High School Debate League was held at Ann Arbor on April 29. This debate has come to be one of the major forensic events of the Middle West, and attracts unusual attention. During the past year more than 750 debates, involving some 1500 debaters, have been held throughout the state. A large number of these debaters attended the final contest in Ann Arbor. Each of the schools participating in the State Championship Debate is awarded a bronze trophy cup, presented by the University of Michigan Extension Division, which sponsors the League. The other two schools which participated in the semi-final debates are awarded smaller cups of the same type. The *Detroit Free Press* presents annually to the six final debaters gold watches, suitably engraved, and to each of the schools in the elimination series of debates a wall plaque trophy.

On the day of the debate two speech conferences were held in Ann Arbor, one for the High School Debating League itself, and the other a State Speech Conference, which is one of the divisions of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club. The program for this conference was as follows:

Drama Program

"Double Casting" ..... W. N. Viola, Pontiac High School
"Preparation Period for a Play"
.....Winifred H. Littell, Southeastern High School, Detroit
"Dramatics and Scholarship" .....Dora Funston, Hillsdale College

"Tips from the Professional"
.....Howard Chenery, Central High School, Kalamazoo

Debate Program

"Smaller Leagues" .....W. D. Odam, Eastern High School, Lansing
"Shorter Debates" .....George Manning, Muskegon High School
"The Coaches' Teaching Load"
.....Ethel K. Nistle, Central High School, Grand Rapids
"Standard Judging" .....Floyd K. Riley, University of Michigan

Speech Course Program

"Auditorium Approach" .....Adrea Keyes, Fordson High School, Dearborn
"The High School Course" .....James McMonagle, Flint High School
" Speech in Junior College" ....Anne McGurk, Highland Park Junior College
Address .....H. H. Higgins, Miami University, Ohio
Discussion .....J. M. O'Neill, University of Michigan

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The State Discussion League of Indiana, sponsored by the Extension Division of Indiana University, held its final competition of the year at Indiana University late in April.

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The State Final Contests of the Illinois State High School Music and Literary Association were held at the Illinois State Normal University at Normal early in May. 7000 high school students participated in the preliminary contests, representing 258 high schools. The speech events included contests in debating, public speaking, and platform reading.

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State contests of the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association were held at Madison on May 6 and 7, in cooperation with the organization of high school students of agriculture known as the Future Farmers of America. The Association contests included competitions in extemporaneous reading, extemporaneous speaking, declamation, and oratory. The debating contests were held a month earlier. During the morning of the first day of the contests, conferences were held between the high school coaches present and members of the Department of Speech of the University of Wisconsin. H. L. Ewbank presided at the oratory conference and Gertrude Johnson at the reading conference.

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The national high school debate question for 1932-1933 is "Resolved: that approximately one-half of all state and local revenues should be derived from sources other than tangible property."

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A debate team from the University of Dublin is scheduled to visit colleges in the Middle West during the late fall and early winter.

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A practice tournament for college debate teams was held at Manchester College, Indiana, late last winter, in which 37 teams participated and 82 debates were held during the two days. Decisions were rendered in about half of the

contests, by coaches present. Mr. George Beauchamp was in charge of the tournament.

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All debating activities at Princeton University are carried on by the college literary and debating societies, Whig and Clio Halls, the oldest societies of their kind in the country. An innovation this year was a series of Open Forums. Subjects of current interest were chosen, and speakers prominent in public affairs were brought to Princeton to uphold opposite sides of the topics. After the formal presentations of the opposing views, the meetings were opened to discussion from the floor. The Open Forums of the past year were as follows:

Resolved: That the United States Should Reduce its Naval Armament.
Affirmative—Mr. Tucker P. Smith, of the Committee on Disarmament
Negative—Rear Admiral Bradley T. Fiske, U.S.N., Retired.

Resolved: That Japanese Intervention in Manchuria is Contrary to International Justice.
Affirmative—Mr. L. K. Chang, Propaganda Division, Chinese Nationalist Armies.
Negative—Dr. Roy H. Agaki, Visiting Lecturer on Japanese History, Columbia University.

Resolved: That the Hoover Administration Deserves the Confidence of This House.
Affirmative—Mr. Allan Fox, Chairman of the N.Y.C. Hoover Campaign Committee, 1928
Negative—Professor Walter W. Whittlesey, Department of Politics, Princeton.

Resolved: That Socialism is the Cure for our National and International Ills.
Affirmative—Norman Thomas, Socialist Candidate for President
Negative—Dr. Philip Marshall Brown, Professor of International Law, Emeritus, Princeton University.

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The Reserve Rostrum, of the Western Reserve University, is again offering to Cleveland and neighboring cities the services of its speakers, who discuss problems of the day, either in the form of a debate between two, four, or six men, or as individual speakers. The questions for discussion during the past year included the problems of capitalism as a system of economic organization, compulsory unemployment insurance, the adoption of some form of Socialism in the United States, centralized control of industry by legislation, prohibition, Soldiers' Bonus, and the adoption of a nation-wide plan for the control of production and distribution in the major basic industries. Last year members of the Reserve Rostrum participated in 64 Forum debates and 38 intercollegiate debates.

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The Wabash College Speakers Bureau supplied calls for sixty speakers within a radius of 175 miles, during the past year. A few of these addresses

were given before other colleges, parent-teacher associations, and women's clubs, but most of them were before high schools and luncheon clubs.

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The final contest of the Intercollegiate Civic Oratorical League was held at Allegheny College in May, with representatives from Albion College, Western Reserve University, Colgate University, College of Wooster, Ohio Wesleyan University, and Allegheny College participating. Faculty representatives from these institutions formed the committee of judges.

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Southwest Texas State Teachers College at San Marcos completed an extensive debate schedule late in the spring, engaging in more than thirty debates, including contests with colleges in Louisiana, Oklahoma, Arkansas, and California. A team from San Marcos also participated in a tournament with 45 teams from Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Kansas, held at Durant, Oklahoma.

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A paragraph from the Report of the President of Bates College for the year 1931-1932 calls attention to a marked change in the debating policies of that institution—a change which is being witnessed in all sections of the country. Bates won considerable fame in debating circles some years ago, when its team won all debates for a period of seven years, beginning in 1918. President Gray points out, however, that during this entire period there were only twenty-one debates, with the largest number of debaters used in one year being ten, and the largest number of questions used, four. During the last two years, more than twenty-five debates have been held each year. The debating squad now averages more than thirty-five students each year—more than the entire number of debaters to represent Bates during the famous seven-year period.

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DRAMATICS

The final interstate competition in the radio drama contest sponsored by the National Broadcasting Company was held Saturday afternoon, May 7, in the Chicago studios of that company. Colleges from Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin participated in the contest, one from each state appearing in the final contest.

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The Koshares, Delight-makers of New Mexico, under the direction of Lester Raines, of the New Mexico Normal University, completed a most interesting program during the school year just past. Several comedies for charity benefits were given in the fall, with one original play, *An Engagement Incognito*, written by a group of students, providing creative effort for the winter term. During the spring term *The Merchant of Venice* took the place of the Commencement play, and a state one-act play contest was held. A group of plays and dances from the U. S. Indian School at Santa Fe proved very interesting. During the summer *Romeo and Juliet* was produced in New Mexican Spanish costumes and setting, and proved to be the most popular

offering of the year. The colorful costumes and quaint settings demonstrated again the universality of Shakespeare's tragedy. The July production was and original drama of Billy the Kid, New Mexico's outlaw hero, by Elliot Cassidy and William Fred Paddock—a performance which was much closer to fact than the recent cinema version of the same hero. The August program was a bill of original one-act plays of the southwest. The September production was an original play dealing with the life in old Fort Union, a border fort, written by a graduate student in the department. The Koshares are committed to a program of original plays and the classics, since their frequent trips over the state preclude the use of royalty plays.

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Recent productions at the Leland Powers School of the Theatre included a production of *The School for Scandal*, directed by Moroni Olsen, and *The Sleeping Beauty*, presented by the freshmen, under the direction of Emily Perry Nietsche. A puppet show, *A Matter-of-Fact Fairy Tale*, adapted by George Brown from a story by A. A. Milne, was produced under the direction of G. Andrew McFadden.

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Enter Madame, by Gilda Varesi and Dolly Byrne, and *Three Wise Fools*, by Austin Strong, were presented recently by the Drama League Players.

The College Theater of Southwest Texas State Teachers College, at San Marcos, produced the following major productions during the past season: *The Queen's Husband*, by Robert Sherwood; *The Racket*, by Bartlett Cormack; *Tommy*, by Lindsay and Robinson; *Outward Bound*, by Sutton Vane; and Shaw's *Androcles and the Lion*. Studio performances, written, directed, and staged by dramatic arts students, were given of *Strategy*, by Frank Buchanan, and *Midnight Episode*, by Catherine Richards. The College Theatre also sponsors the annual regional tournament of the Texas Interscholastic League Play Contest. Monroe Lippman is in charge of dramatic activities.

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Spring plays produced at the University of Illinois, under the direction of Robert Henderson, were *See Naples and Die*, and *R.U.R.*

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An important production at the University of Iowa this summer was the production by the University Theatre, for the first time on any stage, of Paul Green's *Tread the Green Grass*. E. C. Mabie and Vance Morton directed the production. The Department of Music cooperated with the Department of Speech and Dramatic Art in staging the play.

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The annual high school play at Pontiac High School in the last spring was *Little Women*, adapted by Marian De Forest from the story by Louisa M. Alcott, and produced by arrangement with Jessie Bonstelle. W. N. Viola was in charge of the production.

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Productions at the Union Hill High School of Union City, New Jersey, during the past year included, in addition to the full-length play, *The Charm*

School, a group of one-acts: *Aria Da Capo, Joint Owners in Spain, Why the Chimes Rang, A Wedding*, and *Winning an Heiress*. Minnie B. Rittgers is chairman of the Speech and Dramatic Department of the Union Hill High School.

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The University Theatre at Wisconsin has announced the following plays for the 1932-33 season:

Fashion by Anna Cora Mowatt, *The Chocolate Soldier* by Strauss, *Beggar on Horseback* by Connelly and Kaufman, *Caesar and Cleopatra* by George Bernard Shaw, *A Kiss for Cinderella* by Sir James M. Barrie.

To this schedule will be added two series of original plays.

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PERSONALS

Miss Lucia May Wiant, supervisor of speech in the Dayton, Ohio, public schools, resigned her position last spring, after forty years of service. Following the acceptance of her resignation, Miss Wiant, offered to continue her work without salary, because of the financial condition of the schools of Dayton, and she is now continuing her work on that basis.

Wilbur E. Gilman, in charge of speech at the University of Missouri, is spending a sabbatical year at Cornell University, and Gerald D. Shively, is now in charge of forensic activities at Missouri, while Bower Aly is in charge of speech courses.

W. Norwood Brigance, head of the Wabash College Department of Speech, taught during the summer at the University of Southern California.

Wesley Swanson, of the University of Illinois, seriously ill for some time, resumed his work in September.

Lloyd Dudley, who teaches speech in the Danville, Illinois, High School, did graduate work during the past summer at the University of Southern California.

Mrs. Irene Vickers Baker is the head of the newly formed dramatic department at Friend's University, Wichita, Kansas. One of the activities of the new department this year will be a state Little Theatre Tournament.

Miss Severina Nelson, of the Speech staff at the University of Illinois, is the new president of Sigma Delta Phi, honorary speech fraternity for women.

Myron G. Phillips, of Wabash College, was married in June to Miss Marguerite Uhl, a kindergarten teacher in the city schools of Crawfordsville.

John Plummer is in charge of the new Department of Speech in the high school at Naperville, Illinois. He graduated in June from Wabash College.

Mr. J. Fred McGrew has moved from the Division of Public Speaking in the University of Washington to the faculty of the State Teachers College at Fresno, California.

Dr. Giles W. Gray has resigned his position on the staff of the Department of Speech at the State University of Iowa where he has been for a number of years to accept an appointment in the Department of Speech at Louisiana State University.

W. C. Troutman, Director of the University Theatre at Wisconsin, has just recovered from a serious illness which kept him in the hospital for some time during the latter part of the summer.